The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 29, 1889.

The Week.

THE petition which has been circulating for some weeks among New England iron-manufacturers, asking for a repeal of the duties on iron ore, coal, and coke, and a reduction of the duty on pig-iron to 24 per cent. ad valorem, has not engaged the attention of the Boston Home Market Club to the extent that might have been expected. Nor have we seen any allusion to it in the columns of any of the special organs of protection. Neither the *Tariff League Bulletin*, nor the *Manufacturer*, nor the *Iron World* has had a whisper about it. Seeing how closely the movement comes home to them, one would have supposed that they would ere this have examined it with the greatest care, and subjected it to the most refined analysis. Such treatment was due to it on grounds of friendship if on no other, because these New England iron-manufacturers are mostly Republicans and protectionists. They are headed by the Governor of the State, himself an iron-manufacturer on a large scale. They might fairly have asked for more respectful treatment at the hands of their political friends. As they have not received it, we shall "lend a hand," and make it our business from time to time to enable them to gain the public ear.

The manufacturers need only say, through their Senators and Representatives in Congress, what they have said in their petition, to secure all that they have asked for, namely, a complete removal of the duties on coal and iron ore and a reduction of the tax on pig-iron to 24 per cent.—*i. e.*, to about $3 per ton, instead of $6.72, the present rate. If Senators Hoar and Dawes will each make one speech from this text, and if Senator Blair will make one even as brief as his interview in the Boston *Herald* the other day, those needless and crushing taxes will come off—not instantaneously, perhaps, but before the end of the Fifty-first Congress. There will be squirming and squealing in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and the two Virginias, and perhaps in a few other places, but the custom-house levies on raw coal and iron will come to an end, and New England will once more be free to buy the coal and ores of Canada in exchange for her own products. Of course the movement for free raw materials will not stop with coal and ore. The movement for freer trade will not end with a reduction of the duty on pig-iron to 24 per cent. The tariff fanatics and the framers of the Chicago platform are quite right in saying that this will be the entering wedge that will before long cleave the whole system in twain.

There is a judge of the United States Circuit Court in Boston who will bear watching by the Home Market Club. He has lately decided that iron beams, angles, girders, and columns punched and fitted together for a particular building are, in contemplation of the tariff law, "manufactures not specially enumerated or provided for, composed wholly or in part of iron," and, therefore, dutiable at 45 per cent., instead of 1¼ cents per pound, which is the duty on structural iron not punched and fitted according to an architect's drawings. The duty of 1¼ cents per pound is equivalent to 102.75 per cent. We shall expect to see the ruined manufacturers of structural iron, such as Carnegie, Phipps & Co., asking Congress to cure this defect in the law at the earliest possible moment. If Judge Colt were a Collector of Customs instead of a member of the Federal Judiciary, his official head would not remain on his shoulders very long, we think.

New tariff oddities are cropping up all the time. In the modern furniture of expensive pleasure carriages there is a simple contrivance of wood, covered with leather, and having a metal hook, used as a holder of a watch or clock. It is not described by name in the tariff. When these contrivances were imported at Boston in March last, the owners said they were taxable at 35 per cent. under the phrase "coach furniture of *all* kinds." The question of classification and rate was carried to that extraordinary tribunal called "a conference of appraisers," which, by a majority vote, decided that the article was "an *unusual* covering" of a clock, and should pay 100 per cent. The Boston and New York appraisers, having seen many such things, voted them "*usual*" and exempt from tax. The Boston Collector (a Democrat) levied 100 per cent. after Harrison's inauguration. The importer protested and appealed, on the ground that the article was taxable as carriage furniture at 35 per cent. The Treasury decided that the article was the "USUAL adjunct" of a carriage clock, to attach it to a carriage, and, although made of wood and leather, should pay a clock tax. There had been four opinions—one for freedom from tax, one for 35 per cent., one for 100 per cent., and one for the clock tax. The Treasury finally said the Boston Collector had exacted more than twice as much as he ought to have exacted. The Treasury could not, in decency, any more keep the excess than if the Collector had filched it out of the importer's pocket. But did the Treasury order the excess to be returned? Not at all. And why? Because the importer, in protesting against 100 per cent., had said the tax should have been 35, as for carriage furniture; the Treasury had said it should have been the clock tax, and, therefore, as the importer had given a wrong reason, the Treasury would retain the money which the Collector had no right to exact.

Of course the protection organs are in distress over the accumulation of failures of mills and firms who "enjoy" protection. Thus, the Philadelphia *Press* of Thursday last, grasping at a straw, said: "The failure of a large cotton mill in Rhode Island yesterday will no doubt be good news for the free-traders. They relish this sort of thing. But it will trouble them to make use of this failure as an argument for free raw materials." Oh, no trouble at all. We need only quote Mr. John Lee of the *Press's* own city, a cotton-manufacturer who assigned the week before. In explaining the embarrassment of his firm he said: "Our failure is due directly to an overstocked market, but I must admit that it is indirectly due to the tariff on raw materials. Before Congress reduced the tariff on dyestuffs we paid fifteen cents a pound for dyeing yarn, and to-day we pay only five cents. After noticing what effect that had on the business in general, I have come to the conclusion that the only salvation for the manufacturing industries of this country must be found in free raw materials. With the raw materials free we could have reached out in other directions, and I am fully convinced there would be a general diversification of industries. Unless Congress removes the tariff on wool, it won't be long before some of the largest factories in this country will be compelled to close their doors." Doubtless the New England concerns could make similar explanations of the business situation.

The so-called Republican State Convention of Virginia which met in Norfolk on Thursday, was nothing but a gathering of William Mahone's tools. Through his control of the party machinery throughout the Commonwealth, he prevented the election as delegates of any men but those who were entirely subservient to him. Speculation as to whom the Convention would nominate for Governor, or what it would say in its platform, was transparently absurd. The only question was as to what Mahone would say, and as to whether or not he would conclude to take the nomination himself. It is on every ground well that he decided to do so. The issue of the campaign is whether Mahoneism shall control the State, and the true representative of Mahoneism is its creator. With him as the titular chief, there is no chance for the slightest confusion of ideas on the part of any voter, such as sometimes arises when the disreputable boss of a party puts forward a respectable figurehead as the nominal leader.

There is one good thing about the action of the Virginia Republicans in nominating a "rebel" for Governor, and other "rebels" for his associates on the State ticket, and in adopting a resolution in favor of pensions for "rebel" soldiers. It will make even the Forakers intermit, for this campaign, their tiresome rant about "the danger of the rebels capturing the Government." Mahoneism may thus do the country a little service. It deserves to be remarked, also, that on Thursday morning the Boston *Journal* published an editorial article on the movement for unlimited coinage of silver, declar-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ing that "such a policy would be equivalent to inviting disaster and panic," and concluding that "the country must look now, as it has before, to the Republican party as a whole to maintain the principles of sound finance." On Thursday evening the Republican party in Virginia adopted a platform which demands "full and unlimited coinage of silver."

A shocking picture of society is presented in the despatches which tell of the latest developments in the Howard-Turner feud in Harlan County, Kentucky. This county is among the mountains in the southeastern part of the State, and contains an exceedingly illiterate population, almost exclusively white. Wilson Howard, who has murdered several men, the last on the list being George Turner, was said to be hiding in the mountains about fifteen miles from the Court-house, and Judge Lewis set out to capture him. The Sheriff would render no assistance, and the Judge organized his own force, upon hearing of which the Howard faction tried to kill him by inveigling him into ambush. Failing in this, the outlaws and the Judge's force had a battle, in which the latter lost three men, and at last accounts Howard was threatening to come in and burn the county-seat. It will doubtless surprise many Northern Republicans who are wont to ascribe all wickedness to Democrats, to learn that Harlan County is overwhelmingly Republican in politics, having cast 837 votes for Harrison last fall, against only 211 for Cleveland.

The most interesting feature of the recent election in Kentucky was the loss of the Republicans in the eastern counties, which have been the stronghold of the party. In this mountain region coal and iron mines are finding great development, and the Republicans expected, in consequence, to make a better showing in that part of the State than ever before. Instead of this anticipated gain, however, they lost in most of the counties, the falling off of their majority in the home county of their candidate for Treasurer being about one-third from the record of two years ago, and Harlan County being one of the few where they did better than in 1887. The Louisville *Courier-Journal* finds one reason for the change in the growth of educational facilities under the more liberal policy adopted by the State towards public schools of late years. The *Courier-Journal* is making a vigorous fight for still further progress in this direction, urging the agitation of the subject in every county, with a view to supplementing the State fund by local taxation, after the example set in Winchester by Judge Beckner, one of the most prominent Democrats in the State.

The St. Johnsbury *Caledonian*, one of the best weekly journals in New England, does not feel much confidence in the scheme for repeopling Vermont by Swedish immigrants. It sees two serious practical difficulties in the way. One is the fact that the non-occupied lands are not owned by the Government, the State, or any great corporation, which might sell them at a fixed price, but by private individuals, so that anything like a concerted movement to occupy them would at once create a boom in real estate that would discourage if not defeat the scheme altogether. The other obstacle is the fact that Vermont, as well as the rest of northern New England, "is in effect already mortgaged to another nationality"—the French Canadians. The *Caledonian* says that these people "are coming into Vermont in great numbers. They already own a good share of the farms in the northern tier of counties, and are filling the manufacturing towns with operatives of both sexes and laborers in all departments of industry and trade. When it is known that in a place no larger than St. Johnsbury [which had but 5,800 inhabitants in 1880] the parish priest numbers his parish at between 1,900 and 2,000 souls foreign-born or born of foreign parentage, the increase of the Canadian element in Vermont begins to be appreciated." Considering that the Roman Catholic authorities in Canada look upon New England as their future country and the home of their religion, that they are bending every energy to make it so, and that statistics show the French Canadian to be the most prolific race on the globe, the St. Johnsbury paper "feels warranted in saying that Vermont has a mortgage upon it that will be hard to 'lift.'"

The St. Louis *Republic* is thoroughly convinced that "the Democratic party must change its leadership if it wishes to win," and set out under Western leadership to win Western States from the Republicans. The Nashville *American* having asserted that the Republicanism of that region is due to "sectional prejudice," the *Republic* replies that "it is more largely due to Democratic abandonment." It points out that not so long ago Ohio was a very doubtful State, but was surrendered; that Michigan, although abandoned by the national Democracy, inclined strongly towards that party until the fatal blunder was made last year of nominating for Governor a great salt-manufacturer; and that the Illinois Democrats get no help whatever from the national Democracy in the hopeful fight which they have already begun for the control of that State next year and the election of ex-Gov. Palmer to the United States Senate; while "Indiana alone has been fought for, and that fight has been continually made by the Democrats under Northeastern leadership against the Republicans under Western leadership." So far as sectional prejudice operates in the matter at all, it is, in the *Republic's* opinion, only "the natural Western prejudice in favor of the West"; and while it admits that "there is a certain amount of civil-war prejudice which the Republicans know how to play on," it insists that "they cannot use it against the South when the South changes the Northeastern alliance for alliance with the West." Added force is lent to these views by the fact that the editor of the *Republic* not only was born in the South, but also conducted for years in Florida a representative Southern journal.

A few days ago the whites of Atlanta, Ga., were burning in effigy the Postmaster for his appointment of a negro to a place in the office where he would be brought into association with a white woman. Now the negroes have been burning in effigy at Charlotte, N. C., the Postmaster of that city, the Federal Superintendent of Public Buildings in the same city, and the Collector of Revenue for Western North Carolina, as a sort of side-show to a convention of colored Republicans from all parts of the State, who are disgusted because the white Republicans got all but $1,000 of the $30,000 boodle sent down by Boss Quay last fall, and are getting nearly all the offices now. Thus far the Administration has been singularly unfortunate in the matter of the race issue down South, having appointed enough illiterate and incompetent negroes to disgust the whites, but not nearly enough to satisfy the blacks.

A glance at the quarterly report of the Juror Commissioner of New York seems to be all that is necessary to show the farcical nature of the system of jury selection in this city. There were cast here last autumn 277,739 votes. On only 76,624 of these voters was any notice of enrolment as jurors ever served. Of these, 6,860 ignored the notices entirely, 67,403 put in pleas of exemption, and the names of 8,230 got into the wheel. But even of this small number the courts did not secure the services: 3,612 were excused by them, 1,112 ignored their summonses, and finally 2,402 was the number of jurors who actually served, or one out of every 116 voters. The fining of delinquent jurors is quite as much a farce as the drawing. There was due the city in such fines during the quarter $193,675. The amount that actually went into the city treasury was $375. Of the remainder, $138,500 was remitted, $54,500 is still in controversy, and some minor sums have been kept out of the treasury in different ways. The evils suggested by this report are many and serious. It is alarming to think how many "professional jurors" must sit in our jury-boxes when the total number of serving jurors is so few. There has been some investigation of this subject in the last year, but the practical result seems imperceptible.

The last quarterly report of the Bureau of Statistics shows that the per-capita consumption of wines in this country, and still more that of malt liquors, continues to increase steadily, while the proportion of distilled spirits used remains almost stationary of late years and is far below what it used to be. The figures for 1888, as compared with 1870, were: distilled spirits, 1.23 gallons, against 2.07; wines, .59, against .32; and malt liquors 12.48, against 5.30. *Bonfort's Wine and Spirit Circular*, an ably conducted trade journal, ascribes the very heavy increase in the consumption of malt liquors almost wholly to the discriminating effects of the high tax on spirits as against the very low tax on beer and ale. It considers this an exhi-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

bition of "governmental favoritism," which there would be some room for tolerating if the beer were growing better; "but unhappily," it says, "the quality of American beer is steadily deteriorating, and already there are thousands of well-informed people who scrupulously refuse to touch it on account of its injurious effects." The *Circular* of course considers the increased consumption of wines a hopeful sign of the times, "for a people's advance in civilization and refinement is always marked by an increased consumption of pure wines." It attributes the increase in large measure to the fact that domestic wines are free of tax, while the excise levied on foreign wines is not only exorbitant, but in large measure prohibitive, and finds here the reason why so many of our domestic wines are sold under foreign labels. "When," it adds, "our domestic producers rise to a full appreciation of the fact that it is genuine merit, far more than price, that popularizes wines, they will invite rather than fear competition from every quarter."

The seizures of our *Rush* in Behring Sea are getting so numerous that the rage in Canada over the apathy of the home Government begins at last to find an echo in London. The London *Times* now demands that something be done promptly to stop the operations of our cruisers. There is nothing very serious in the situation, however, because we hear from Washington that our Government has not as yet taken up any position whatever with regard to Behring Sea. Indeed, it is said that the President and Cabinet have not yet had time to look into the matter at all, owing to the demands made on them by the office-seekers. As soon as all the claims are satisfied, and "harmony" established in all parts of the country, the President will turn his attention to this international complication.

Harper's Weekly, commenting on the Maybrick case, assumes that Judge Stephen on the trial "appeared as counsel"—a practice, it justly says, "very foreign to the American sense of fitness and justice"; and that he "sat virtually as a juryman, answered the arguments of counsel with whom he disagreed, and urged upon the jury, with all the necessary prestige of his position, the conclusion he had reached." Our contemporary can hardly have read Judge Stephen's charge when it passed this very severe judgment on him. We have done so carefully, and can testify that, beyond some little "digs" at pet aversions of his, such as experts, the charge was, in method, such as every English judge and every American judge who tries to do his duty delivers on all serious occasions. It was a careful summing up of the evidence, with special attention to the more important points on both sides, and with great care and emphasis for everything which made for the prisoner. What made the Liverpool mob angry with him was that any careful summing up of the testimony bore inevitably against the prisoner, and that he dwelt somewhat strongly on her adultery as a sufficient motive for the attempt on the husband's life, because the law requires a motive for every crime; a crime without motive being evidence of lunacy. Our judges do not often charge in this way, partly because they are more afraid of responsibility than the English judges, and partly because every sentence in a judge's charge may here be excepted to and made the basis of an appeal, to say nothing of the fact that our lawyers are allowed to make any number of "requests to charge" anything that comes into their heads, and appeal if the judge refuses. These "requests," which in nine cases out of ten are rigmarole, the poor jury is allowed to listen to and be bewildered by.

Mr. George Lewis, the well-known English lawyer, has been interviewed on the Maybrick case by the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and declares himself unqualifiedly in favor of a Court of Criminal Appeal, composed of two judges with power to order a new trial "in case they were of opinion that the verdict [of the jury] was wrong." But this would not meet the Maybrick case. What was demanded in the Maybrick case was not that the prisoner should be tried over again by another jury, but that the judgment of large public meetings and of crowds in the streets should be accepted by the Government in place of the verdict. There would have been just the same uproar if the two Judges of Criminal Appeal had confirmed the verdict, for the crowd would have said that the judges were all wrong, just as Judge Stephen was, and that they were prejudiced against her because she was pretty and had committed adultery. No court can take the place of a promiscuous assemblage of excited sentimentalists.

The great strike in London has undoubtedly been organized and set agoing by Hyndman, Cunningham, Burns, and other Socialistic leaders who have been working now for two or three years, with more or less success, to array the east end of London in hostility to the west. The attempts to hold meetings in Trafalgar Square, which ended in riots, were the first result of these efforts, and gave a considerable stimulus to the Socialistic propaganda. The present strike would probably have occurred sooner but for the prolonged business depression, which, however, has now passed away. Business of all kinds, except agriculture, has not been so brisk in England since 1873. This last season has been the best that London shopkeepers have ever known, and the Socialistic leaders have, therefore, not unnaturally concluded that the time had come to strike their blow. They are trying for the first time in England a general or sympathetic strike—that is, a strike of several trades in aid of one, with the view of producing widespread public inconvenience, and thus bringing pressure of every kind to bear on the employers. When this sort of strike was first talked of in this country, it seemed very formidable, and the inventors thought that if they could bring it about, they would soon have "society" on its knees begging for pardon and reconciliation—a delusion produced by the habit of considering manual laborers as a class apart, engaged in supplying food and clothing and means of locomotion to the people who work with their heads or live on their capital. The bubble was burst very speedily here by the discovery that every strike on a large scale not only rapidly exhausts the resources of the strikers, but bears hardest on the poor. The strikers have to be supported by somebody while on strike. When only one trade strikes, it is maintained in part at least by those who remain at work; but if all strike, of course there is nobody to draw on for the relief fund, and the wider the area the strike covers, the shorter must the struggle be. What is worse still, any rise in the price of provisions or in the cost of transportation begins at once to threaten the very lives of the poor, while it only subjects the well-to-do to easily borne inconvenience.

One of the charges of which Gen. Boulanger has been recently convicted was having shared in an "epaulette job," and the epaulette job was this: Gen. Lewal, the then Minister of War, had issued an order abolishing epaulettes in the French army. Gen. Boulanger was then in command at Tunis, and he had for jackal, or "heeler," a rascally journalist named Buret. When the order was issued, a certain contractor named Dupuy was left with a very large stock of epaulettes on hand. It was, therefore, of the last importance to him to get the order rescinded or postponed. So he applied to Buret, and promised him two cents a pair on all his (Dupuy's) stock if he got the order cancelled. Buret undertook the job, and went to Boulanger, but Boulanger was apparently cautious, and wanted a guarantee, or "anchor to windward," so Dupuy wrote Buret the following letter:

> "I am sure you personally have complete confidence in my word, but possibly *your friend* may not have that confidence, and I accordingly meet all doubts by telling you that I am ready to write you a letter making a positive engagement in any terms you please."

In another letter to Buret he said: "Come and see me after your visit to the great chief [*le grand chef*]"; and in still another, "You know there will be twenty centimes a pair for you." Then Gen. Boulanger went to work to show he would be "no deadhead in the enterprise." He telegraphed from Tunis introducing Buret to the War Department, and to Buret, "I am sure Gen. Mensier will receive you with his usual kindness." In a second despatch he said: "I have received your telegram. I am writing about the Dupuy matter [*pour ce qui concerne M. Dupuy*], not to the Minister, but to some one who has the ear of the Minister. You may rely on me. *Burn this.*" One more letter to Buret said plumply: "I have written about Dupuy's epaulettes. Your devoted friend, Général Boulanger." One half expected to find at the foot, "Mille choses de ma part à Mme. Buret," or "Hommages respectueux à Madame," or some equivalent of "Kind regards to Mrs. Fisher," so close is the parallel in many other respects.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

A CURIOUS ADMISSION.

THE Dayton (Ohio) *Journal* is a Republican paper in excellent standing in the party, and speaks on party questions with a certain authority. It recently took occasion to denounce another Republican paper, the Cincinnati *Times-Star*, for the following utterances:

"The petty clerkships covered by the Civil-Service Law are not connected with the party organization, for the Federal service cannot be looked upon in the light of a party machine, and, in any event, the incumbents of these places can exercise little more influence upon the Administration or on politics than do Kansas grasshoppers upon the Government of Nova Scotia. So long as their work is well done, under the direction of responsible superiors, it matters not, either to the Administration or the party, whether they are Republicans, Democrats, or Prohibitionists."

This the Dayton *Journal* considers "Mugwump gabble," which, the editor says, "makes a man of common sense sick," and he then substitutes for it the following statement as true party doctrine:

"Let it be once understood that no Republican who desires a clerical appointment is to be considered in the distribution of Federal clerkships, and the party will disintegrate at once. Not that the ordinary voter is a Republican or a Democrat for office only, but because human nature is so organized that the rewards for party service stimulate to action."

This is an absolutely new definition of a political party. Webster's definition is: "A number of persons united in opinion, as opposed to the rest of the community or association, and aiming to influence or control the general action." Burke and all other leading writers on government or politics with whom we have any acquaintance take the same view. According to the Dayton *Journal*, however, the correct definition is something of this kind: "A number of persons united in the opinion that persons desiring clerical appointments are to be considered in the distribution of party offices." For, if the Republican party would "disintegrate"—that is, disappear—if it were settled that clerical appointments would no longer be considered part of the discretionary patronage of the Government, it is proof positive that the distribution of clerical appointments for party services is the sole or main object for which the Republican party exists. This is very important if true. We do not remember a similar confession on the part of any political organization—not even of the Tammany Society. Of course "clerical appointments" are simply a euphemism for money. Nobody desires a clerical appointment simply that he may do clerical work. He can practise writing and arithmetic in his own home to his heart's content. What an office-seeker means by a clerical appointment is a certain sum of money paid in monthly instalments. He would take this money for any kind of work equally light. He does not insist on doing clerical duty. He would just as soon do political work—that is, organize ward associations or "fix" primaries. As a matter of fact he often does no work of any kind.

Clerical appointments, then, mean salaries, but not salaries for the whole party. The whole Republican party consists, say, of the 5,440,551 who cast their votes for President Harrison at the last election, while the clerical appointments included in the classified service which the Dayton publicist has in his eye, and about which the Mugwumps "gabble," amount to about 16,000. The whole number of Federal appointments is estimated at 120,000, and we will, in order to make our case as strong as possible, assume that all Federal appointments are "clerical appointments." The proper definition of the Republican party, then, according to our Ohio friend, will be this: "Five millions and a half of persons united in the opinion that 120,000 persons ought to receive small salaries in the Federal service for doing electioneering work." Rather a funny definition when one sees it in print, and evidently not one that could be put into a text-book on government for schools and colleges. In fact, it looks to us very like one calculated to make intelligent men sick in any part of the civilized world, and which any man outside a circle of bar-room loafers ought to be ashamed to "gabble" about. We fear, indeed, that it is the composition of a "youngster" who, like Mr. Wilder of Kansas, will be saying twenty years hence that he ought to have been "kicked" for writing it.

We do not admire the Republican party as at present managed, but we do not believe its *raison d'être* is the parcelling out of a few thousand small clerical offices among a small band of needy adventurers. It ought to make an American blush to give any such account to the world as this of either of the great political organizations. Both the Republican and Democratic parties, with all their faults and whatever the managers may feel or think, exist for the propagation and expression in legislation of certain ideas on great lines of public policy. If the sole concern of the voters in either when they went to the polls was the distribution of the smaller salaries, it would show that the Government was a hideous failure, and that the days of the Republic were numbered. An organization which exists only to get money must be either a purely commercial or a criminal organization. There is no place for it in modern politics.

Another difficulty about the Ohio definition is, that it fails to account for the existence and activity of the Democratic party for the twenty-five years following the outbreak of the war, when it had neither office nor hope of office. What kept it together? Why did it not "disintegrate"? Why was it able to elect a President in 1876, and again in 1884? And how is it that popular government has been carried on in England for fifty years, with a popular interest in politics such as we have not seen here since the days of the war, when there is not a single clerkship or post-office or custom-house place to be had by any worker in consequence of an electoral victory? These questions have often been put to spoilsmen within the last twenty years. So far as we know, not only have they not been answered, but no attempt has been made to answer them. Human nature, in fact, is not so degraded in any free country as they would have us believe.

THE NEW SILVER CAMPAIGN.

THE campaign of Senators Stewart and Reagan in the new Northwest, ostensibly in the interest of Irrigation, but really in favor of Silver, has rightly attracted the attention of the country. There is no room to doubt that the silver-men will drop all disguises and all half-measures when Congress meets, and make a push for "free coinage," and all that that implies. In the last Congress, it will be remembered, when the bill was pending in the Senate to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase bonds in his discretion with the surplus in his hands, Senator Stewart offered an amendment providing that any holder of gold or silver bullion might present it at the Treasury and receive coin certificates therefor at the rate of one dollar for 25 8-10 grains of gold (the present coining rate), and at a rate for silver to be fixed and advertised fortnightly by the Secretary, such coin certificates to be legal tender for all debts, public and private, except on contracts otherwise made previously to the passage of the bill.

Simultaneously with this, Senator Reagan offered an amendment directing the Secretary to apply forthwith the $100,000,000 of gold now held in reserve for greenback redemption to the purchase and cancellation of bonds of the United States, *i. e.*, to suspend specie payments. Other amendments equally inappropriate to the pending bill and equally destructive of business interests were offered, and it seemed at one time as though all of them would be adopted. Finally, Senator Beck offered one which was accepted by the silver-men as a compromise. It provided that whenever any national-bank notes should be surrendered by retiring banks and not taken up by others within thirty days, the Secretary should buy silver bullion to a corresponding amount and coin the same, in addition to the monthly coinage now provided by law. This was adopted by a vote of 31 to 20, and the bill so amended was sent back to the House, where it was quietly smothered.

It is not likely that the silver-men will now be content with anything less than free coinage. It is needful, therefore, to inquire what free coinage means. So much time has passed since the subject was submitted to popular discussion that most people have forgotten that it was hotly debated eleven years ago, and that an adverse decision was then reached, the present law providing for a limited coinage having been passed as a compromise. Free coinage means that all persons, in all parts of the world, shall have the right to take silver to the mints of the United States and have it coined into dollars of 412½ grains each for their account, and that these dollars shall be legal tender for all debts not made specifically payable in gold. Free coinage applies to the silver of Mexico, Germany, India, and every other country, as well as to that of the United States, since otherwise it would not be free but limited coinage.

What is implied by the phrase legal tender in this case? It means that every man, corporation, bank, and institution, public and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

private, including the national and State Governments, may discharge their existing obligations with 412½ grains of silver for each dollar, unless the same are specifically payable in gold. As 412½ grains of silver are worth only seventy cents or thereabouts, it means that everybody may cheat his creditors out of 30 per cent. of their dues. The only drawback upon this swindling operation would be the present inability of the mints to coin silver dollars fast enough. This difficulty might be surmounted by making silver certificates legal tender, and providing for the issue of certificates on the bullion deposited, as Senator Stewart proposed in the last Congress. It should be mentioned here that Congress has never made silver certificates or gold certificates legal tender between individuals. The only legal-tender instruments are gold coin, standard silver dollars, and greenbacks. A silver certificate is simply a certificate of deposit, like a warehouse receipt. Whether the Supreme Court, in a pinch, would hold that Government-warehouse receipts may be made legal tender between individuals under the Constitution, would be a question of much importance if Mr. Stewart's ideas should prevail in Congress.

It should be borne in mind that legal-tender acts have no economical effect except upon contracts already made. They exhaust themselves upon what is past. They may compel a man who has made his bargain in good money to take in payment money worth 30 per cent. less. But they cannot compel him to make another bargain, or to sell his property or services for any less value than he conceives them to be worth. There are some exceptions to this general rule arising from custom. The rate of wages, for example, when once fixed, is not easily changed. If the standard of value should be depreciated 30 per cent., wages would not instantly rise to correspond. The price of commodities would rise, however, immediately and universally. The presumption is that goods are now sold as low as they can be on the gold basis. If the basis is changed to silver, the goods must still be sold so as to return to the producer as much gold value as he received before. He cannot continue his business on any other terms. The advance in the nominal prices of commodities would eventually cause an advance in wages, but it would be after a dispute and a strike, and very likely the full amount of the advance would not be gained for a long time.

Again, some articles are habitually sold at a fixed price which cannot be easily changed, as, for example, newspapers. The cost of producing white paper and ink might rise 30 per cent.—and certainly would so rise if the silver standard were adopted—but the publishers could not advance the prices of their papers in a corresponding ratio, because there is no coin which exactly represents it. The difficulty of advancing it at all can be best appreciated by those who are in the business. The impossibility of advancing it in the exact ratio of the increased cost of making newspapers is apparent to every one. This difficulty would extend to other branches of trade in the proportion that each is restricted and hampered by custom to a fixed price for the articles sold.

It is scarcely necessary to say that all deposits in banks, savings institutions, trust companies, and all policies of life insurance payable in dollars would be payable in money 30 per cent. less valuable than the existing currency, unless these institutions should refuse to take advantage of the opportunity to swindle their customers which the law would offer to them. They might not be able to do otherwise, seeing that their own funds (except the gold coin and gold certificates in their possession) would be liable to the general depreciation. About eleven years ago the clearing-houses of New York and Boston passed a resolution that they would not receive silver on deposit except from customers who would agree in writing to receive silver in payment of their checks. These resolutions have never been rescinded, although there has been no occasion for putting them in force, the parity of silver and gold having been maintained by the Government. Such parity cannot be maintained after the passage of a free coinage bill admitting all the silver on the globe to our mints. In such a case the clearing-house resolution would undoubtedly be enforced, and would undoubtedly be adopted by the other banks throughout the country. Since no act of Congress can add anything to the value of silver or detract anything from the value of gold, we should have two kinds of money inevitably, just as we had two kinds during the war. The banks would simply recognize that fact, and adapt their business to it.

SPECULATING JUDGES.

The Albany *Law Journal* has directed attention to one of the evils of modern life which is often whispered about, but seldom mentioned above a whisper. It appears that a judge of one of our higher courts was sued by a stockbroker to recover money lost by the judge in stock speculation, and that a debt was established of about $14,000. It is immaterial what were the merits of the particular transaction, the only matter of importance to the public being the fact that the court was interested pecuniarily in the movement of stocks, and, therefore, had a bias in business controversies which might come before it for decision. The mere statement of the case is sufficient for all the purposes of comment. "It stands recorded," says the *Law Journal*, "that a magistrate of high authority and large jurisdiction, who is called to pass upon property rights of great magnitude, even stock transactions, is himself a stock gambler in Wall Street. Perhaps he will try to justify himself by saying that such transactions are not now illegal. So it is of pool-selling within certain limits. But what high-minded citizen does not shrink from the picture?"

Public opinion does not need any instruction upon the unhappy consequences of stock gambling on the bench, but there are degrees even here, and it is easy to see that if the practice is tolerated at all, it will go from bad to worse, and eventually corrupt the fountain of justice altogether. For if a judge may "take a flyer" in a particular stock, soothing his conscience with the thought that the property concerned is not in litigation before him, and probably never will be, the fact that he is "in it" will be known to a greater or less number of brokers and litigants. Usually and almost necessarily some law firm has charge of the judge's stock ventures. Brokers and litigants become impressed with the idea that this law firm is the one to employ in cases where the interests of corporations are involved. When they have, or expect to have, law-suits of considerable magnitude, they retain the lawyers who are supposed to have charge of the judge's interests. Perhaps they put them in the way of making some money. Perhaps the original suggestion comes from the lawyers that it would be well to "cast an anchor to windward" by letting the judge have an interest in the "deal," or in some deal sufficiently identified with the plaintiff or defendant to enable him to know who his friends are. This means swift demoralization of the bench, for the judge who will allow pecuniary favors to be thrown in his way will soon become an active seeker of them, and when he gets in this state of mind he is a blackmailer whose power of extorting money is limited only by his fear of exposure. That the mind of the speculating judge is absorbed by the turning of the wheel of fortune to such an extent that he cannot address himself properly to his ordinary duties, is a complaint not unfrequently heard among members of the bar.

We will not dwell longer on these painful features. It is worth inquiry whether there is any remedy for such a state of things short of impeachment, whether there is any profounder cause of this evil than the natural heart of man. There are no speculating judges in the United States courts. Yet these judges are of the same clay as those of the State courts. If it were said of Judge Blatchford, or Judge Brown, or Judge Lacombe, that anybody was carrying stocks for him, with or without margins, such a story would not be believed for a moment. But why not? Are not these men of the same race and blood, the same training and education, held by the same social ties, braced against temptation by the same environment? Not quite. These men are not dependent upon party conventions. They are not amenable to bosses, or "halls," or popularity of any sort. They are in an atmosphere of independence. Nobody can throw them down. Nobody can turn them out of office penniless at the end of a certain term. Moreover, the close of life for them is darkened by no shadow of poverty. When their natural strength is abated, they are still provided for. The evening of their days is a period of grateful repose, to be welcomed rather than dreaded.

How different from this vista is that of the State judge who sees at the end of his service, which may come after the expiration of a few years, the best years of his life, the necessity of returning to the bar and beginning life anew, his old clients having disappeared, and he compelled to fight for a liv-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ing among more vigorous and experienced practitioners. It is not true, therefore, that the Federal judges are subjected to the same temptations as the State judges. There is all the difference that one can imagine. Doubtless it was the intention of the people to put the salaries of the State judges high enough to enable them to save money for their declining years, but this benevolent intention has been and generally will be frustrated by the hopefulness of human nature. The judge will always expect to be reëlected. He will say to himself that to-morrow shall be as this day and still more abundant. His outgo will correspond with his income, and eventually he will be stranded. The $6,000 per year, with pension annexed, that the United States Circuit judges receive, is more satisfying in every way and far more conducive to the public interest than the $15,000 that the judges of our Supreme Court receive, with the prospect of being turned out to grass at the end of their respective terms. These facts do not excuse the speculating judge, but they are facts which society may well ponder.

A CROP OF OATHS.

When the barbarous "tax on knowledge," the duty on books, was incorporated in the Tariff Law, an exception was made in favor of schools, seminaries, colleges, and learned societies, which, under certain restrictions, could import, duty free, two copies of any one book at a time. The poor professor has to pay $1.25 for the book which costs his college $1. The wisdom of the measure seems doubtful; as it is the law, however, the institutions thus favored have availed themselves of it under the liberal rulings of former secretaries, tinkered and modified about a dozen times in as many years. The importer, at first, made oath that certain books in his invoice were imported for certain colleges; then the librarian's written order was required in addition to the importer's oath; then the librarian's sworn order had to be filed, backed up by the importer's oath, and such books as did not come in the first invoice could be extracted from the sworn order, and the extract, certified by the Collector, would admit them duty free at any subsequent time. Serial publications, such as the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' and similar books, were admitted free on a single oath, filed with the entry of the first volume; the importer, on entering subsequent ones, referring to date and vessel of the first importation—under oath, of course. Then the librarian's oath had to be made after the date of the entry, and the importer could give bond for its production, or pay the duty and await its refunding after filing the oath.

Though swearing had thus already become a fine art, the present Administration was still not satisfied. As the consul in London divides the fees for oaths with his notary, our officials here apparently formed partnerships with our notaries, for since the first of July a new oath form has been prescribed, to be sworn to both by librarian and importer, for not only each book or number of books, but also for each new part, volume, number, or sheet of serial publications. Proctor's 'New Astronomy,' for instance, in twelve parts at seventy cents each, will now require twelve double oaths at thirteen cents each, with two cents postage which the importer pays for sending the blank, and two cents postage which the library pays for its return—all to save seventeen cents duty. It appears that the liquidating clerk at the Custom-house found it too irksome to verify the importer's sworn statement that the librarian's oath, covering the whole issue of certain serials, was on file with a certain entry. It appears, too, that some dealer, to oblige a customer, had from his shelves sent a certain book at duty-free rates to some library, and replaced it with an identical copy afterwards imported free on the librarian's oath. Instead of having the individual offender punished for his possibly not entirely legal proceeding, the special agent's instincts, or Mr. Tichenor's early training (which had not taught him that some people were honest), preferred to smite hip and thigh all the librarians and book importers of the country for one man's evasion of the law. A new iron-clad form of double oath was prescribed at a few days' notice, all the accommodations of former orders regulating the free-of-duty importation of books were at once stopped, and the importer's business seriously and wantonly interfered with by this "Government for the people." It is, for the importer, impossible promptly to procure the required oaths from distant places, and during the summer vacation—the time most judiciously chosen for the enforcement of the new regulations—some librarians cannot be communicated with at all. But unless the oath is filed with the entry, duty is assessed and no refunding made. Thus the $1 book will cost the college either $1.25, duty paid, or at best $1.15, to say nothing of the annoyance and loss of time to both librarian and importer.

A petition, signed by the most prominent importers of English, French, and German books, setting forth in detail these hardships and the bringing into contempt of so sacred a thing as an oath, was addressed to the Secretary of the Treasury, but without avail. Importers, in such matters, are always snubbed by Treasury officials. It now remains for the American Library Association, and the principals of schools and presidents of colleges and seminaries, to take up the matter, and bring such influence to bear on officialdom as to modify this latest scheme of increasing the revenue by Treasury orders. A great number of our librarians are clergymen, and their voices ought to be heard in a matter of this kind, and President Harrison and his Cabinet—reputed to be pious Christian men—ought to heed them; otherwise the smaller libraries, the very ones most needing it, will be debarred by unreasonable exactions from enjoying the benefits of the statute allowing them to import their books duty free, and the crop of oaths will be enormous, our notaries become millionaires, and swearing—in more senses than one—will become the importer's and librarian's daily occupation.

ROADS AND STREETS.

It looks a little as if there would be a serious movement made by the present municipal administration for the provision of better street pavements. Some money has been provided for it, and there is apparently a greater disposition on the part of the men in power to consider what is the best kind of pavement. Moreover, the movement is supported by the perennial readiness of our city authorities to undertake great public works involving the handling of large sums of money and the employment of a great deal of labor. It is a hopeful sign, too, that both the Commissioner of Public Works and the Comptroller should be making an attack on the gas companies, with a view to compelling them to replace in a proper manner the pavements they tear up. The street railroads are nearly as great offenders as the gas companies. They neglect their duty in the matter of repaving just as grossly. If Commissioner Gilroy desires fame as a reformer, he cannot win it more easily than by making an onslaught on them also. But the real test of efficiency and good faith on the part of anybody who undertakes to make New York streets decent or convenient will be found in the way the garbage and ash nuisance and the wagon nuisance are dealt with. No man who, having the power to prevent it, allows the streets to be occupied and obstructed by 30,000 business wagons and trucks, or who fails to struggle for their removal, can claim the credit of being a street reformer. Good pavements will be of comparatively little use if a large body of private citizens are allowed to use the streets for purposes of stabling or storage. There is no more reason in allowing a man to save rent by keeping his wagons in the street than in allowing him to put up a hut in it for the accommodation of his family or the storage of his goods. Nothing of the kind has ever been seen before in any large civilized city. It is not over forty years since pigs were allowed to run loose in the streets—a practice which now seems monstrous, but it was really not as monstrous as the use of the streets as repositories for wagons and carts.

Another good sign of the times is the issue of an excellent pamphlet by the League of American Wheelmen on the "Improvement of Highways," both town and country. It cannot be too widely circulated, for it contains articles on the making and care of good roads and on city pavements by experts, who not only urge the saving and the comfort of good roads, but show in detail how they are to be made and maintained. Every farmer in the country ought to have a copy put into his hands.

The editors very naturally refuse to accept the suggestion that "the degree of a nation's civilization may be gauged by the condition of its roads," because "this would be a mortifying test to apply to our own country, for it would place it not only below France, where all the country roads are said to be actually swept every morning, and Germany and England, but even below some of the States of Asia and northern Africa." The

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

excuse for the badness of American roads is that railroads were made here, as nowhere else, when the country was too thinly settled to make good highways attainable, and have ever since absorbed the attention of nearly everybody who was interested in the questions of transportation either for goods or passengers. But the country along nearly every line of railroad is now so thickly settled that the question of reaching the railroad has become one of paramount importance. In several of the Western States, and in many parts of this State, the traffic receipts of the railroads fall off heavily in spring, simply because the cartage of goods to the stations is made impossible by the badness of the roads, and there is hardly a road in the country in which the work of the American, as compared to that of the European, draught-horse is not nearly doubled by the condition of the road-bed, even in the best weather, to say nothing of the increased wear and tear of vehicles and harness.

There is another excuse for the badness of American roads which the Wheelmen's pamphlet does not mention, but which ought not to pass without notice, and that is the invention of the light wagon as a substitute for the saddle and the pillion, as a means of locomotion over short distances. The comparative ease with which this vehicle can be drawn over rough or boggy roads has for half a century greatly aided the railroads in concealing from the American public the extraordinary badness of their highways. And then the strength of tradition among the farmers to whose care the country roads have been left, and the length of the winter in many of the Northern and Northwestern States, must also be taken into account in inquiring why road-making has not kept pace with the other arts in the United States. We believe it is strictly true that the farmers' mode of repairing the roads in spring has come down without change from the early colonial time, when a highway meant simply an open bridle-path through the woods, free from dangerous holes and passable in the dark by a mounted man. The scraping up of the mud from the ditch to raise the centre of the roadbed, and level it, clearly dates from this period, when there was no need to provide for wheeled traffic.

SUMMER BOARD AS A BUSINESS.

OUR remarks on the future of the Summer Boarder have attracted a considerable amount of attention from other journals, most of which seem to sympathize, more or less keenly, with him over his expulsion from the more attractive points on the Atlantic shore. But only one—the Boston *Herald*—has offered the slightest remedial suggestion. The writer confirms fully the accuracy of our account of the way in which the Boarder has been treated by the Cottager. He says:

"The fact stares one in the face that at the present time nearly every part of the New England coast which is most attractive to the pleasure-seeking public is in private hands, and cannot be trodden upon by the stranger, except through the courtesy of the owner. The same process is going on at the most desirable retreats in the country and at the mountains. Wherever the best society has colonized for the summer, the language is, 'Procul, procul este profani.'"

The consolation he offers the Boarder, however, strikes us as rather empty. He simply remarks that the Cottager cannot "deprive him [the Boarder] of the simplest things in nature, or of the joyful surprises and delights which come everywhere to the observant man and the contented heart." "Beauty in nature," he adds, "is a relative term, and there are thousands of places where it can be found all over this country, beautiful beyond the power of any words to describe, on which society has not yet set the seal of approval and exclusive appropriation."

The non-observant men, however, and the discontented hearts have their right to the pursuit of happiness, as well as their betters; and it is of some importance to them, when their summer vacation comes round, to know where to find beauty in nature without having to search the continent for it in every direction. It seems to us, therefore, that a few plain, practical truths may be worth a good deal more to the Boarder than any quantity of encouragement to pursue the beautiful all over the country. Let us, then, say frankly that in our opinion all the very attractive spots on the seacoast are virtually lost to him for ever. The Cottager has either got them securely now, or will have them before long. The reason of this is, that our seacoast, and especially the northeastern portion, has not only to supply the people of our own seaboard States with sea air and sea bathing, but has to meet the wants of the well-to-do of the whole Mississippi Valley, who rush for the Atlantic every year in increasing numbers with a passionate eagerness which scorns expense, and will have the best purchasable sites. Everything of the kind from Cape May to Eastport has been already bought up, or is held for a rise. Any hotel or boarding-house which occupies an attractive position is, we may rely on it, destined to disappear before long before the Cottagers' consuming thirst for seclusion and fine scenery. The Boarder who does not see this, or, seeing it, ignores it, is simply blind. To the old Boarder it may make but little difference, but it warns his children in unmistakable terms that the saving of money for a cottage cannot begin a day too soon. The mere craving for "sea food" which one witnesses on the part of Western people now in our seaboard hotels, is of itself a significant indication of what is coming in the near future.

The Boarder who means to remain a Boarder, and who never intends to rise into the condition of a Cottager, must, it seems to us, make up his mind to live in the mountains. It is there that he, for the present at least, is likely to be most secure. Mountains on this continent are a practically unlimited quantity. They cover vast areas. They abound in beautiful scenery, and they produce mountain air in great abundance. In them, we are persuaded, the true home of the Boarder—if the poor fellow can have a home on this continent at all—will hereafter be found. But it is absolutely necessary to his continued peace that he should try in some manner to improve the summer-boarding-house keeper, for it is the imperfections and shortcomings of this personage which, almost as much as anything else, drive people into cottage life. A cottage in a large percentage of cases is a refuge from boarding-house fare and noise and discomfort. Improvement is probably attainable, because fully nine-tenths of the present boarding-house keepers are really farmers or fishermen by training, and have begun to take boarders simply because the boarders forced themselves upon them, or because they thought they could make a little money by it. These pioneers in a new industry—for such it may be called—have had two great and, in many cases, insurmountable difficulties to get over. One is complete ignorance about the habits and diet of "city folk," and the other is unwillingness to admit that one American can or ought to have more reasonable wants of a personal nature than another. It always goes against the grain of the summer-boarding-house keeper to admit that what was good enough for himself and his wife is not good enough for these "citified" people who descend on him once a year. When they demand food or sleeping arrangements with which he is not familiar, he hates to comply, because he thinks they are merely giving themselves airs, or putting on "frills," or making a fuss about trifles. If, under the pressure of popular agitation, he does comply, he complies with a bad grace and without zeal, or interest, or disposition to learn, and consequently with but little chance of improvement. He does not give his mind to the amelioration of his cookery, which he finds is good enough. He will not warm the plates, because he has himself eaten off cold plates all his life. He will not take any trouble to provide baths, because he never bathes; or give more towels, because he has always found a little one enough for his own use. He consequently is apt to receive his boarders in a spirit of hostility. He meets them as aggressors who have come to find fault with his house and his table, and wear his wife's life out, and need to be repelled with energy, especially when they ask him to make any provision for individual peculiarities. We once saw an elderly gentleman treated like an impudent ruffian in the White Mountains because he asked modestly for two horses for himself and his wife to ascend Mt. Washington alone, and not in the general caravan of forty which was being made up.

We presume the Swiss, who are now the greatest hotel and boarding-house keepers in the world, and have brought the art to the highest perfection, and make immense sums out of it every year, passed, when their mountains first began to be a summer resort, through a stage of feeling somewhat similar to that in which our summer-boarding-house keepers now live. But they very soon got over it, and reduced the entertainment of tourists to a business conducted on what may be almost called scientific principles. The Swiss hotel-keeper studies boarders' tastes as coldly and commercially as a manufacturer

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

studies the quality of raw material, and eliminates his own feelings completely from the problem he has to solve of making money by attracting people to his house. In fact, his sons and daughters now serve an apprenticeship to the trade of finding out what boarders like and supplying it. We have little doubt that in the next generation our mountaineers will exhibit in a similar way their appreciation of the immense sums that may be made by providing comfortable accommodation in the country for the vast crowds of sedentary people which the American community now contains.

MICHELE AMARI.

WHO that loves the history of right against *might, of the oppressed against their oppressors*, but has read the 'Sicilian Vespers,' written by Michele Amari during the darkest days of despotism; and, reading, has not marvelled at the mighty power of a people, outraged by bitter injuries and insults harder still to bear, *uprising in spontaneous unanimity, without* previous conspiracy, without organization, without a chosen leader? This patriot and true historian died on the 15th of July, "suddenly," at the age of eighty-three. The thought that occupied his last days was the erection of a monument to Alto Vannucci, the historian of Italian martyrs in Rome. "If the Commission is to meet at once," he wrote, "I will come without my family," and on the 14th he rose, as was his wont, at five A. M., made his coffee, took leave of his family, and, with the proofs of his last work, "on a period of the Middle Ages wherein he had discovered the germ of the idea of Italian nationality," he went to the National Library in Florence to compare his text with a document discovered there, then to the Superior Institute, of which he had been one of the founders, and was ever one of the most active members. At the foot of the great staircase, feeling dizzy, he asked for a chair, sat down and died. "To-day," said Senator Massarani, "one of the most glorious of our old veterans has passed into the realms of history; the youngest heart in Italy has ceased to beat."

A complete biography in a couple of words: Michele Amari was a typical Sicilian. With robust constitution, iron frame, strengthened by toil and tempered by frugality, with active brain and passionate heart, he was a true son of the soil. Born in 1806, he obtained employment in the municipality of Palermo, spending his leisure hours and nights in the study of old documents and forgotten books. His first work, 'The Foundation of the Monarchy of the Normans in Sicily,' published when he was twenty-eight years of age, was welcomed as the promise of a rich harvest. Then followed an entirely new version of the Sicilian Vespers, drawn from original and unpublished documents. Conscious that the Bourbon King Ferdinand would not look favorably on a work calculated to inflame the passions of the islanders and revive their memories of departed liberty, Amari called his work 'A Period of Sicilian History in the XIII. Century.' It was published in Palermo. One of the earliest copies lies before us.

The book created a deep, widespread sensation. The infamous Del Carretto incensed the King by assuring him that in the person of Charles d'Anjou the author had intended to portray himself. The copies were sequestrated, the publisher thrown into prison, where he died; the author summoned to Naples. Conscious of what his fate would be if he walked into the trap, Amari preferred exile, went to Paris, and there, under its true title, republished the 'Sicilian Vespers.' It had a "clamorous" success among the Italian exiles of all provinces and parties gathered there, was translated into English (by Lord Ellesmere) and into German. Naturally, it was not satisfactory to the Chauvinists, and two Frenchmen "rendered it" *in a fashion of their* own, falsifying the documents and giving a quite other version of the tragedy, while Michelet, Thiers, Lenormant, and Longpérier rendered full justice to the historian in their reviews, and welcomed the exile as a prized member of their literary circles. Mazzini hailed the work as an "event," even as Guerrazzi's 'Siege of Florence,' "a book written by a man who could not fight a battle." The special novelty and value of the work lay in the proofs that the Vespers were not the result of a long-laid plot, of a conspiracy, but the outburst of popular indignation, the overflowing of the cup slowly filled to the brim by the insolence of the foreign usurpers.

Amari's tale of bygone days was addressed to the Italian slaves of the Bourbons in 1842. Six years later, it was the people of his own Palermo who flung down the gauntlet to the same Bourbon King on the 12th of January, 1848, who fought and won their mortal duel. Who can say how many hearts the author of the 'Vespers' had inspired, what swords he had sharpened? In the intervening years, from 1842 to 1848, Amari devoted himself to the study of Eastern languages, specially of the Arabic. His book had brought *fama*, not relieved *fame*, so, to satisfy hunger, he compiled catalogues for five francs per day, then commenced his history of the 'Mussulmans in Sicily,' a work even more highly esteemed by literati pure and simple than the 'Sicilian Vespers.' Step by step the author traces the Mussulman from the "great land" to the Italian peninsula, and seeks for every trace of Italian courage and virtue, putting his finger on the plague-spot of all Italy, the cause of her falling such an easy prey to thieves and bandits, adventurers, and usurpers—namely, that each State preferred the triumph of its enemies to the prosperity of another State. So Benevento fought against Salerno, Naples against Capua, and the garments of all were divided among the spoilers. When the Revolution broke out in 1848, as deputy and minister of his native island, Amari struggled to the last, then, after the bombardment of Messina, returned to Paris and his studies, with the half suspicion that Mazzini, from whom he had held aloof as "too exclusively unitarian," might after all be right in asserting that Sicily could never be free while any province of Italy remained enslaved.

In 1860 Amari, one of the most energetic promoters of the expedition of the Thousand, and created Minister of Public Instruction by Garibaldi at Palermo, acknowledged that Mazzini was right after all. In the preface to his great work, only completed in 1872, he writes:

"I began this arduous task with the heart of a Sicilian who longed for the liberty of one little State, desiring the unity of Italy without a hope that it was so near its accomplishment. I finish it with the fervent hope that the Italians will fraternize ever more among themselves, seeing that in their unity and liberty lies the safety, the honor of each and of all; that the country may grow in knowledge, wisdom, power, and wealth; that the new Rome may atone for the armed oppression of ancient Rome; and that the evil arts of the after times may yield to true liberty in worth, unlimited freedom of thought."

On the twentieth anniversary of Garibaldi's entry into Palermo, to his fellow-citizens in festival Amari wrote from Rome:

"Now that the ambition of abnegation and of combat has yielded to the thirst for wealth and ease, remember, oh citizens! what you once were, and what you became in May, 1860; remember the tyranny of the Bourbons dispersed by a breath; remember the Thousand and their Duce who grasped the hand of Victor Emanuel. Sicily, united in deed and by law as she already was by nature to the great Italian fatherland, is placed as the guardian of the southern frontiers."

Though a pure-blooded Sicilian, Michele Amari was a favorite throughout Italy. As soon as Florence was free in 1859 he was named Professor of the Arabic Language and Literature in Pisa, was among the first Italian Senators of Turin. Minister of Public Instruction in 1862, to him the country owes the first serious, uniform direction given to the higher branches of study, the collection of scientific material, the selection of the right men for the right places, to the exclusion of the elements hostile to liberty of thought and freedom of research. But political strife was alien to his nature, and when in 1864 he quitted the Ministry, he never again accepted a portfolio. Numberless are his contributions to French historical and philological reviews, to the *Archivio Storico*, the *Rivista Europea*, the *Nuova Antologia*. The Istituto di Studi Superiori of Florence was to him as the apple of his eye, Florence his second home. A member of all the scientific institutes of Europe, of the Institute of France, the Oriental Society of Germany, the Asiatic Society of London, the Historical Society of Utrecht, the Imperial Academies of Petersburg and Vienna, in 1876 he presided over the fourth Congress of the Orientalists in Florence; his bright, genial face, his cordial vivacity, warming the hearts of all who had long spoken his name with reverence. Late in life he married, and in his wife and children enjoyed for the first time the happiness of a peaceful home. Illness, weakness, the ailments of old age, kept away from him. "Only a few months since," says Professor Villari, "I found him in the Paris Library, delving with boyish eagerness among ancient documents and old chronicles for his latest work, writing to Italians, to foreigners, for dates and facts, passing from library to library with hastening steps, as though fearing to arrive too late."

A purist from his earliest years, the Italian language owes not a little to Amari. As edition after edition of his 'Vespers' was issued, in the latest (1886) he still found fresh sentences to revise, fresh words to correct.

"Let it not be forgotten," he wrote, in the last preface, "what toilsome labor was bestowed on the Italian language by the generation passing, nay, almost passed away, leaving Italy a free and great nation. Without recording the facts that relate to myself, or to the vicissitudes of my own studies, the thorns that have beset *my path from boyhood to old* age, I must bear witness how *down there in Sicily*, even as on the peninsula, political aspirations led us to react, among other things, *against that sort of Italian* commonly written; poor, base, weak, full of foreign words and idioms. Our zeal in waging war against the intruder may be guessed from the long list of proscribed words [foreign idioms to be discarded by Italian speakers and writers] compiled by three civil servants (poor Gaetano Darta, who is dead, Francisco Perez, and myself) of the Ministry of State in Palermo in 1835."

Among his unpublished works is a glossary of the words of Arabic origin in the Sicilian dialect.

He was a life-long adversary of popes, priests, and the Roman hierarchy. Hence, true to his convictions, he enjoined on his family to bury him with purely civic rites, and he was obeyed literally. The Syndic of Palermo, having

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

telegraphed the desire of the city that the body should be restored to them to rest in the Pantheon of S. Dominico, and the family consenting, the remains were embalmed on the ground floor of the Istituto Superiore, where he died, and followed to their temporary resting-place under Michael Angelo's watch-tower, on San Miniato, by the Minister of Public Instruction, representatives of Senate and Chamber of Deputies, by Ubaldino Peruzzi, who first appointed the Sicilian exile professor at Pisa; by the Syndic of Florence; by Prof. Villari, President of the Faculty of Philosophy and Philology; by the professors of all the educational establishments of Florence, and by his eldest son and throngs of Florentines, who looked upon Amari as their fellow-citizen.

A SUMMARY OF BALLOT REFORM.

BOSTON, September 1, 1889.

THE demand for ballot reform has now passed the stage of local and casual effort, and has reached the importance and dignity of a popular movement. In the coming winter its activity will be vigorously renewed, and the present seems a not unsuitable time to take account of progress made, and to note some of the characteristics of the movement. The term "ballot reform" will be used to mean any measure adopting the two principles of compulsory secret voting and official ballots.

The stage of this reform reached in the various districts of the nation may be summarized as follows: (A) Legislation enacted: Connecticut, Indiana, Kentucky (1888), Massachusetts (1888), Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Missouri, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Wisconsin; (B) bills passed, but not signed by the Governors: New York, Dakota; (C) bills rejected (*a*) in the House where first offered: California, Delaware, Illinois, Maine, New Hampshire, Ohio, Pennsylvania; (*b*) in the second House, after passing the first: Arkansas, Nebraska; (D) bills introduced, but not reached on the calendar (*a*) in the House where offered: Kansas, Oregon, Texas; (*b*) in the second House, after passing the first: Colorado, New Jersey; (E) the subject more or less discussed, but no bills introduced: Iowa, Louisiana, Maryland, Vermont, West Virginia; (F) no attention given to the subject: North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia. No news has been received from Arizona, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Mississippi, Nevada, Wyoming, Washington.

The laws of Connecticut and Michigan embody ballot reform very incompletely, but their enactment signified a substantial victory for the friends of reform. The Tennessee law will probably be pronounced unconstitutional, as it fails to provide for voting by illiterates, and, in addition, defies the rule against special legislation in applying to certain fixed districts only. The Kentucky statute has been held constitutional (Rogers vs. Jacob, 11 S. W. Rep. 513) in every respect except its failure to provide for illiterate voters. It applies only to Louisville, as the State Constitution requires *viva-voce* voting for State elections. In Montana a special election for aldermen has already been held in Miles City (July 26) under the new law, and the Miles City *Yellowstone Journal* says of it (July 27): "The first trial of elections under the new system has certainly proved a success." In Dakota the perpetration of a crime became necessary to defeat the movement, and the bill was stolen after passage and while on its way to the Governor. The first regular elections under the new laws will take place as follows: Montana, October 1, 1889; Connecticut, October, 1889 (municipal); Massachusetts, November 5, 1889; Tennessee, January, 1890; Minnesota, March, 1890 (municipal); Rhode Island, April 2, 1890; Wisconsin, April, 1890 (municipal); Missouri and Indiana, November 4, 1890.

Taking up the States in which the reform was directly rejected, the opinion may be ventured that the absence of a defined public opinion was responsible for the failure. In neither Arkansas, California, Delaware, Illinois, New Hampshire, nor Pennsylvania, was there an organized agitation or any considerable discussion. In Maine, where public sentiment declared itself with singular distinctness in favor of the reform, the interests of the Republican Machine, powerful enough to withstand this first shock, account for the large adverse vote. In Ohio, where there was an evident public approval of the measure, the bill failed by only three votes. It is true that in Kentucky, Minnesota, Montana, and Tennessee, the persistent efforts of a single legislator were immediately responsible for the creation of a more or less powerful public opinion; but in Connecticut, Indiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, New York, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin, the Legislature simply yielded to an irresistible popular pressure. If we note one more fact, that in no case where organized effort was made on behalf of such a measure did the people fail to appreciate and approve it, and to give pronounced support, we shall have indicated the proper course of action for friends of the reform in the future. It is, Organize, and create a public opinion. "When bad men combine," said Burke, "the good must associate; else they will fall, one by one, in a contemptible struggle." Opinion, in this country, says Mr. Bryce, prevails "more swiftly and more completely" than in any other. The moral of the past year has been, Educate the people, popularize this popular reform, and proceed to cultivate a public opinion in its favor. Then legislation must follow as speech follows thought. Ballot Leagues have been formed in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and West Virginia, and are among the possibilities in Kentucky, Missouri, and Wisconsin. Their function may be to bring about legislation, or, as in Massachusetts, to secure a fair trial for the system when adopted. There is no reason why there should not be a national association of these leagues.

In cultivating a public opinion, as in everything, there may be method, and we may notice how successfully popular petitions were employed in formulating public sentiment and in focussing it upon the legislatures. In Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Montana, and Rhode Island, petitions signed by thousands poured in upon the legislators, and served to indicate the drift of opinion in constituencies. In Indiana the Indianapolis *Sentinel* attained the same object by opening a special column for letters on the subject from all parts of the State. In the ideal popular government, as both Mr. Bryce and Prof. Sumner agree, we shall probably have discarded "those formal but occasional deliverances made at the elections of representatives"; and when once the will of the majority is made manifest, our public servants will proceed to carry it out as spontaneously and immediately as the needle responds to the magnetic influence. It is the electric effect upon legislators of numerously signed petitions (as instanced in the present movement) which forecasts the advent of this ultimate stage of democracy.

It would be interesting if we could ascertain (as in South Australia we point to Dutton, in Victoria to Nicholson, and, probably, in Rome to Gabinius) whose should be the credit of having first proposed the adoption of the Australian or the English system in this country. The first to call public attention to it seems to have been a member of the Philadelphia Civil-Service Reform Association, in 1882, in a pamphlet on "English Elections," and Mr. Henry George, in the *North American Review* for March, 1883. It is also claimed by Mr. Robert Schilling, editor of the Milwaukee *National Reformer*, that he advocated the system in his journal in 1881. However this may be, the first assault directly upon legislative ranks appears to have been made by Mr. George W. Walthew of Lansing, Mich., who, in January, 1885, introduced in the State Legislature (without success in that session) a bill founded upon the Canadian system. It was, however, the passage of the New York and Massachusetts bills in 1888 that gave the moving impulse to the present successful agitation. One of the noticeable facts in its rapid diffusion is the number of bills that were brought before the same Legislature by various persons without preconcert. In Indiana a dozen or more bills were introduced, in Connecticut nine; in California and Massachusetts four, in Illinois, Michigan, New York, and Ohio three, in Minnesota, Missouri, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin two, and in most instances the various authors of these bills had acted independently and unaware of each other's undertaking.

In many cases the bills were prepared and supported by bodies representing definite political ideas (the Civil-Service Reform Association, Single Tax League, etc.), and an analysis of the objects in each case aimed at, and the various grounds upon which the cause received support in different quarters, would be profitable study if it were obtainable. A brief general indication of these objects and causes would include: (1) the purposes of the single-tax and labor associations throughout the country, and the necessity, in order to carry them out, of secret voting for evading the control of capital; (2) in the Southern and Southwestern States, partly a desire to disfranchise indirectly the illiterate negro, and partly a (more praiseworthy) desire to relieve the negro from the intimidation which, it is claimed, prevents him from deserting the Republican party; (3) in the Eastern, Central, and Northwestern States a reaction against the various forms of corruption, and a wish to root it out, beginning indirectly with ballot reform, and ending, perhaps, with a corrupt-practices act; (4) the condition of things in those States where public opinion is less active and effective (California, Kansas, Maryland, etc.), and the era of ballot-box stuffing and false returns has not yet passed away; here ballot reform is as yet less pressing than other measures, and, if adopted, will come rather as a part of a general reform based on, *e. g.*, a registration law; (5) a general desire to throw off the yoke of the machine politicians and destroy the power of the bosses; but this feeling has as yet very little strength in the West; (6) among thoughtful men everywhere a desire to see elections free from even the most subtle intimidating influences, and a satisfaction at the prospect of greater independence of thought, a lessening of party subserviency, and, in consequence, an improvement in the quality of our politics.

The two leading political parties, as may be supposed, are seen not always to have taken the same position as to this reform; their attitude has usually been determined by the local strength and inter-relations of the influences above mentioned. To give to

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

each its due would require a complete table of the votes of the various legislatures; but the debit and credit account of the two parties may be roughly stated thus: (*a*) in six States opposite sides were taken by the parties; in five of these the Democrats were the supporters, in one the Republicans; (*b*) in seventeen States no party lines were clearly apparent, but the party having the majority should receive the responsibility and the credit as follows: The credit for legislation belongs in six States to the Republicans, in two States to the Democrats. The responsibility for non-legislation belongs in seven States to the Republicans, in three States to the Democrats. Total score, crediting each with opponent's failures: Democrats, fourteen points, Republicans, ten points. The whole record shows how irrational it is to carry *national party lines into local reforms*; and doubtless, too, a new illustration for your correspondent "G. B." is somewhere hidden here.

Attention may be called, in conclusion, to two defects in our legislative systems which have been especially emphasized in the course of this agitation. One is the need of a legislative rule, as in Massachusetts, requiring every committee before the close of the session to report in some shape upon every subject referred to it. The art of infanticide as applied in committee to bills of urgent public importance is a notorious feature of Congressional practice; and in the course of the past six months was more than once applied to ballot-reform bills. What is needed is a rule such as is enforced in Massachusetts, fixing the responsibility of rejection clearly upon the members of the Legislature, enabling a measure to be brought at least once to a hearing before one branch, and lessening the temptation to "fix" a committee. The other defect is the brevity of the legislative session. In *Kansas, Colorado, and Texas*, where the sessions last forty, ninety, and ninety days respectively, and occur only once in two years, ballot-reform bills perished for lack of time. A desirable reform, in Legislatures thus limited, has every chance against it. Bills backed by powerful private interests, or important to this or that legislator for personal reasons, are given precedence (usually by a series of tradings) upon the calendar, and thus the brief time is exhausted. It would seem that the best working principle is: Pay the legislator an entire sum for the session, and give him sufficient time to legislate properly.

JOHN H. WIGMORE.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXHIBITION.

III. — DAGNAN-BOUVERET — AIMÉ MOROT AND ROLL — GERVEX.

PARIS, August 5, 1889.

SCARCELY any painter of the day has received greater praise or attained to higher honors than Dagnan-Bouveret. Definitively posed before the public as a young master when his now well-known picture, "The Accident," won him a medal of the first class at the Salon of 1880, he has produced in the past decade a series of pictures of incontestable excellence, all of them easel pictures (none over five or six feet long, it may be noted), and he has received as the crowning glory of a brilliant career the Medal of Honor at the Salon of this year for his picture "Breton Women at the Pardon." The international jury has also awarded him a medal of honor at the present exhibition, and it is universally conceded to be well deserved. The "Breton Women at the Pardon" cannot now be seen in Paris, for it was purchased at the Salon and has gone to Mulhouse, in Alsace, where its owner resides; but "Le Pain Bénit" (painted in 1885) and the "Horses at the Watering-Place" (painted in 1880) are to be seen at the Luxembourg gallery. "The Accident," which belongs to Mr. W. T. Walters of Baltimore, is so well known that one can call it to mind perfectly, and in the Champ de Mars are two of the painter's principal works, "La Bénédiction" (painted in 1882), for which the best English title is "The Paternal Blessing," the "Vaccination" (painted in 1883), and a picture called "The Pardon" (painted in 1887), which in subject and in general color scheme is very much like the famous picture of this year.

"Vaccination" is a work which resembles "The Accident" in subject, though it is much less sombre in color. The scene is a large room, one of the *salles* of the municipal building in a provincial town, probably, wherein are grouped—some standing, others seated on the chairs and benches against the wall—a number of mothers with their children in their arms. At the left of the picture before a window is the doctor, the personification of the traditions of the *médecin de province*, and a mother and a child, whose turn it is to submit to the dreaded operation. The picture is painted with all of Dagnan's knowledge. The sure drawing, the frank, firm modelling, the agreeable, quiet color, the exact values of tones —all are here. Were it not that the other picture, "La Bénédiction," hangs on the wall near by, we should find it entirely satisfying. Of "La Bénédiction" I can hardly say too much in praise. The scene is one of those taken from the life of the French peasantry, the blessing by the parents of a newly married couple before they leave the father's house—a simple custom, in the presentation of which the artist found a subject with a charm from the point of view of sentiment lacking in the "Vaccination" and "The Accident," and admirably suited to his talent as a painter from the plain, every-day sort of picturesqueness which exists for those who know, like him, how to bring it out without affectation or appeal to the literary sense. But, quite apart from whatever pleasure we may derive from the poetical view of this work, it is certain that Dagnan has never been more happy in the choice of a *milieu;* never has so admirably rendered, with such delicate appreciation, the subtle values of an interior lighted up, as this one is, by the full sunlight of out-of-doors, tempered by the white curtains drawn over the windows; never has conceived a more natural and at the same time effective composition; and never, in every respect, painted more truthfully or handled his material more artistically than in this admirable canvas. The young man is kneeling on the floor at the left of the picture in profile to the spectator, his bride with her veil falling over her shoulders at his right hand and a trifle in advance. The father and mother, who are standing before them still further to the left, are dressed in their Sunday black clothes, and at the back of the room, behind the long white-draped table where the wedding feast has been spread, are grouped the friends who have assisted at the ceremony—young girls in white with here and there a colored ribbon, sturdy-looking men, sunburned and brown in contrast with their white linen, and, around and about all, the warm glow of the daylight coloring the plastered walls and the wooden rafters of the ceiling with a wealth of tints of amber, opal, and blue.

There is not, I think, in the exhibition a picture by a living painter on which to found so much hope for the future of the French school as this. It is in such a picture, as in some of Bastien's work, that we must look for worthy rivals of Millet. We have here not a special talent, of which it is impossible to say what may be its worth, nor an unknown quantity like Besnard or Rafaelli, nor an eccentricity of genius like Rodin in sculpture, but something which it is possible to judge by comparison with other work, and to estimate pretty closely at its just value. If "La Bénédiction" does not prove to be one of the works of our day most held in esteem thirty years hence, it will only be because all canons of taste will have been reversed, and all appreciation of the true and the beautiful have ceased.

If I were asked to say who are the two *strongest* men among the young French painters of to-day, I should unhesitatingly name Aimé Morot and Roll. Both may be called young, though each has behind him a brilliant list of honors; Morot having begun as the Prix de Rome in 1874, with a third-class medal at the Salon of 1875, and the Medal of Honor at the Salon of 1880, and Roll, first recompensed by a third-class medal at the Salon in 1875, having gained a first-class medal in 1877. At this exhibition he receives a medal of honor. Morot is represented by five pictures. "The Good Samaritan" is, no doubt, a fine piece of painting, the nude torso of the man on the donkey supported by the Samaritan being solidly modelled and luminous to the point of brilliancy; and though in the *procédés* we are reminded of Bonnat, it is sufficiently original, and is of the very best of academic work. He appears, however, as a painter of the greatest vigor and individuality in a large picture called "Reichshofen," representing the famous charge of the Eighth and Ninth Regiments of Cuirassiers at that battle in the war of 1870–'71. It is impossible to describe the terrible rush and mad whirl of horsemen tearing over the ground in a perfect cyclone of movement. There is a foreground of steep slopes, strewn with the dead and wounded; the wild, irregular mass of cavalry, with horses leaping and men standing in the stirrups or bent forward, sabre in hand, on the horses' necks, fills the middle of the canvas; and beyond, for miles away, swathed in the smoke of battle, stretches the bare, hilly country to the horizon, with a narrow strip of sky at the very top of the picture. There is no suggestion of the academy in this; all conventions as to composition are thrown aside; there is no central group, no concentration of light, no figures posing in heroic attitudes. It is reality as far as it can be produced on canvas, and beside it even De Neuville's stirring battle-pictures seem tame. Taken in detail, it is exceedingly well done, abounding in good *morceaux*, broadly and vigorously painted throughout.

In "Toro Colante," a picture of medium size, we find an equally individual treatment of a different subject. A bull in the amphitheatre stands square in the middle of the canvas, his great neck curved and his head lowered under the weight of a horse he bears on his horns. Behind is indicated a mob of Spaniards yelling from the benches of the ring. This picture is a composition, and a handsome one. There is only the one group, the bull and the horse; the rest serves simply as a background. It is full and deep in color, without over-richness. The bull forms a mass of warm dun color, with purplish tone in the shadows, the horse a contrasting one of warm gray and white. The ensemble is harmonious, sombre, and impressive by a certain reserved sobriety of tone. In these powerful works Morot evinces a perfect knowledge of the means of art. Such knowledge is shown, without much else, in "The

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Good Samaritan," where what can be learned at the École is shown by a man who has learned it all and is able to express it forcibly. In the "Reichshofen" and the "Toro Colante" he has made use of all his knowledge, but, rejecting the formulas of the schools, has applied it to the expression of action, according to a conception which, different in each picture, is as original and personal in the one as in the other.

Roll is possessed of less science, but has more the temperament of a painter, and more robustness and vigor in the painting of a *morceau.* In his "Festival of Silenus," where a half-dozen women, holding hands, are dancing under the trees in a ring around the ruddy god, there is an intense feeling for nature, and the nude bodies are painted with a full, swinging brush that does not stop to correct slight inaccuracies of form and outline. In the "Woman and Bull," a picture which has been seen in New York, there is remarkable strength, and the same ample modelling as in the women in the "Festival of Silenus," with a truer look of out-of-doors in the grayer tones of the flesh in shadow. In the "Femme Assise," a simple study of a female figure in back view, there is again a slight uncertainty of modelling in parts, but great truthfulness in the rendering of flesh and blood. In quite a different field is his "Portrait of M. Alphand," the Director-General of Works at the Exposition. A man is painted, full-length and life-size, in the strong daylight, standing in the street or road, with white walls and scaffolding behind him. It is a solid, rugged figure, well planted, and in strong relief against the light background. It is not forced nor exaggerated in values, nor is it painted with that subtle delicacy which characterizes Bastien's work, or the portrait of Mme. Toulmouche by Delaunay, which I mentioned in a former letter; but it is amazingly real. The impression is seized and fixed without hesitation. In "The Stone-yard at Suresnes," a vast canvas with many figures clad in workingmen's blue and gray and white, there is the same impression of reality, and the same vigorous, hurrying, and powerful swing of the brush. In so far as boldness and vigor may be counted as first qualities in draughtsmanship, strength and robustness as prime qualities in painting, so far Roll may be considered without a superior. He is one of those men whose individuality predominates in their work, and who could never have remained tied down to set theories and rules. Like Morot, he struck out in the open, and each, having found out his way, has pursued it with acknowledged success. They are two of the most striking figures in French art.

Henri Gervex is a man of finer mould than either of these. Thoroughly educated in the schools, he is a competent draughtsman and skilful technician. He has never been, even at his début, identified with classicism or historical painting, but plunged boldly into the modern field, the depiction of the life of to-day, at the outset. He contributes nine pictures, of which five are portraits. "Doctor Péan," a large picture, representing a scene in a hospital ward, with a young woman on the operating table, and the professor, with his assistants and students grouped about him, is one of those exceedingly clever canvases to be found in the Salon every year—a genre subject, magnified to life-size proportions; and, while a good exposition of an artist's ability to solve difficult problems in the representation on canvas of figures in light and air, and remarkable for justness of values and a look of reality, it is without interest in color or that harmony of tones to be found in smaller pictures, in Dagnan's "La Bénédiction," for example. "The Members of the Salon Jury," a portrait group of thirty or more life-size figures, is a work of the same sort, but of less interest.

What entitles Gervex to be picked out for special mention as one of the leading French painters are his two remaining pictures, "Rolla" and "La Femme au Masque." "Rolla," the subject being taken from Alfred de Musset's poem, represents Jacques Rolla standing at dawn at the open window, his head turned to look at the young girl sleeping on the white bed in the foreground of the picture. It was painted for the Salon of 1878, but the administration refused to hang it, on moral grounds. It was then exhibited in a gallery in the Chaussée-d'Antin, and attracted much attention in the world of art. Its merits were warmly discussed at the time. Ten years having passed, and the administration being, happily, more liberal (for, except the poem itself be kept in mind and the picture be looked at purely as an illustration and not as a piece of painting of the nude, there is nothing in the least objectionable about it even for the ultra-prudish), we are able to compare it with the best painting of the nude figure the decade has produced, and to form a definite judgment of its merits. I think it no more than the picture deserves to say it is the best thing in its class in the entire exhibition. This is true, too, in spite of the fact that there are details in the drawing which may be found fault with. The hypercritical insist on this point, but the drawing is very good as a whole, and sufficient. As painting it is a marvel. Nothing could be simpler in modelling; the passages from the half-tints to the full light (for there is no part of the figure actually in shadow) are delicately felt, the flesh is admirable in color, the *pâte* full and even, the ensemble pure and luminous. Not much more praise can be given to the best painting of the nude in existence, but this beautiful figure charms us, by its subtle grace and tender color, as we are charmed before the work of the masters.

Though Gervex is still a young man and in his full development, we may well doubt whether he will ever again produce a work equal to this. If we look at the "Femme au Masque," painted several years later, we shall be strengthened in our doubts, for though it is a gracious figure and one of the best pieces of painting of the nude we shall find here, it has not the subtlety of the other, and in color it is far from being so fine. It is, withal, refined in type, and as to drawing it is quite up to the best; but the flesh tones incline to pinkishness, and it is less luminous and just a trifle "painty." Be that as it may, we shall have to go to the Retrospective Exhibition to find anything to compare to Gervex in painting the nude.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

A COLONEL OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

PARIS, August 9, 1889.

THERE is quite a large literature of works on the wars of the Revolution and of the Empire, and this literature is increasing every day. It was natural that the chiefs of the army should appear at the head of this military literature: such are the memoirs of Napoleon, of Marmont, of Gouvion St.-Cyr, of Jomini. In our day we have a curiosity to know the impressions of those who were at the other end of the hierarchy, and I have noticed in their time the memoirs of Captain Coignet, who was the type of the soldier of the First Empire. These memoirs have had so much success that they have been illustrated, which is always a mark of great popularity.

I have now before me the memoirs of a colonel of artillery, Pion des Loches, just published by Firmin-Didot, under the title, 'My Campaigns.' Pion was born in Pontarlier, in Franche-Comté, on February 20, 1770; he was one of seven children, and was destined for the Church. He was tonsured at the age of thirteen, and entered in 1789 the Seminary of Besançon. The French Revolution upset all his projects; he was obliged to take the oath to what was called the civil constitution of the clergy and to leave off the ecclesiastical costume. Fortunately for him, he had only taken the minor orders; three times he escaped the requisitions which called the French young men to the army by paying for substitutes, but finally he was drafted in the *levée en masse* and placed in one of the battalions of his countrymen. The clerical education which he had received had little prepared him for military life; it had, however, given him a strong sense of duty, a love of virtue, a sense of humanity, and a certain habit of public speaking which never left him; and it was with him as with Renan, who says that he has never lost what he received in his education at Saint-Sulpice.

In November, 1793, we find Pion in a village on the Rhine. "I don't look very military in a great fur cap with a fox's tail, long moustachios, a pipe in my mouth, a fifteen days' beard, a coat called carmagnole—such is my costume. I don't know myself." On the Swiss frontier, where he was a little later, "our service consisted in patrolling on Sundays so as to hinder the inhabitants from going to mass in the territory of Soleure. We had orders to take them before the administration, as liable to the penalty reserved for the émigrés—that is to say, the pain of death. Such a service revolted us, but we were in connivance with our hosts, and we only began to patrol in the morning after they had left, and in the evening after they had come back."

Disgusted with this life, Pion tried to enter the school of artillery at Châlons-sur-Marne, but he arrived there too late for the examination, and he was allowed to enter the Fifth Artillery, a well-organized and disciplined regiment. He took part soon afterwards in some military operations, and left the regiment for the school at Châlons, where he learned all that was necessary to become an officer of artillery. He obtained his brevet and was sent to Strasbourg. He immediately made his début at Kehl, which was then besieged. Every other day new men were sent from Strasbourg to Kehl.

"'Here I was free to fire for forty-eight hours with eight guns. I went up the parapet to see the batteries of the enemy, but the fog was so thick that I did not even see the covered way. Nevertheless, besieged and besiegers fired without interruption; it was the habit. We did not receive a single shell, and I concluded that my bastion was not in the front of the attack.' On the 1st of January, 1797, at twelve, Pion was relieved, after having burnt, probably in vain, 1,400 pounds of powder, and made more noise than he accomplished work."

I cite these lines, as they show the manner of Pion, his sincerity and candor. He does not pretend to be a hero, he performs his duty wherever he is placed.

In his new capacity of lieutenant he went to Switzerland and Italy. We cannot follow him at Berne, Zofingen, Mt. Saint Bernard, Milan, Cremona, in the retreat through Turin to Grenoble. During this retreat he says of himself: "I must have been born under a happy star. I walked almost alone through a country in which the French army was destroyed in detail,

LICENSED TO ONELOOK
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

I saw more than one corpse of an assassinated soldier."

Napoleon, then First Consul, avenged the defeat of the French arms in Italy, and made his famous winter expedition via the Saint Bernard. Pion entered Italy by way of Mt. Genèvre. This time his service took him to Genoa, to Alexandria, before Peschiera, which was besieged and taken. On his return to France he was sent to Metz. We find a note written in this town on the Concordat on the 10th of April, 1802:

"I am sure the Concordat will not please everybody. It is consoling for pious souls, and it is a very clever political move on the part of the First Consul, who will find in religion the most solid basis of his authority. To-day, Easter Day, we have buried the *décade;* we have had enough of it. Though the law which substitutes Sunday for it is not yet published, the Commandant has given the regiment complete rest. I do not know whether they will reëstablish the *aumôniers* in the regiments; my comrades laugh at me and want me to become theirs."

Pion was made captain in 1803. He was at the camp of Boulogne when Bonaparte threatened to invade England, and his impression was that the artillery never succeeded in doing any harm to the English navy; it was always firing at too great a distance: "I saw thousands of shells thrown, and not two happy hits." He received the cross of the Legion of Honor at the great ceremony which Napoleon, now become Emperor, celebrated in the camp. "The united army amounted to more than 60,000 men. The Emperor, in the uniform of his Guard, was on a throne round which were the flags which he had taken from the enemy in Italy and in Egypt. Round him were the princes, the great dignitaries, and the marshals. The Bishops of Cambrai, Arras, and Ghent, as well as 20,000 officers, received the decoration from the hand of the Emperor."

The army of Boulogne soon took the road for Germany, and the rapidity of its march was much admired. It seems that the soldiers were delighted to turn their backs on England:

"There was not one who would not have preferred to go to the end of Siberia rather than undertake the English expedition. The march in Germany was like the moving of a tornado. One day Marshal Soult, with whom Pion was marching, stopped two merchants of Augsburg, travelling in a postchaise. 'When did you leave Augsburg?' 'This morning.' 'Were there any Austrians in your city? have their scouts entered it?' 'No, sir.' 'Well, I am going there. If I find a single Austrian, I will have you shot at the gate of the town.' The postchaise turns round, the two Augsburgers are made to march bare-headed in the rain at the head of the corps d'armée, and all the officers of the staff find much justice in the decision of his Excellency [the Emperor's marshals were styled Excellencies and addressed as Monseigneur], who speaks of shooting these two men as if an Austrian troop could not have entered Augsburg since their departure."

To do justice to Pion, he was humane, and such proceedings inspired him with horror; he never inflicted any unnecessary punishment on anybody, never allowed any act of cruelty or wanton destruction, but his diary gives us too ample proofs of the horrors of war and of invasion. Gen. Vandamme tried in vain to hinder pillage. "In going through Ems, I saw Gen. Vandamme, one of our division generals, in a great fury; he had a man shot, at the head of the division, who had his knapsack full of stolen silver. Had he exercised as much severity towards all the men of his division, he would not have had men enough left to form his escort." Some generals set the worst example, and their carriages were full of stolen effects; they made unnecessary requisitions, and accepted composition in money from the local authorities.

Pion was at Austerlitz.

"After eighty-six days' marching here we are in the centre of Morovia; we have Hungary on our right, Bohemia on the left, and if we go forward we shall arrive at Austrian Silesia and Galicia. All these countries are barbarous; those among us who know German are not understood; the populations want even the necessaries of life. . . . I have sometimes been on horseback from six o'clock in the morning until night without any other nourishment than a little bread and a little brandy, which I had in my pockets. My corps d'armée had to fight five times. Are we approaching the end?"

Every army is a mixture of virtue and vice. Pion cannot speak well enough of his general, La Riboisière, who always shared everything with his officers and men, who always slept on straw, and "who set an example of all the virtues." He is very irate with many others.

"Bavaria," he says, "which we were said to be delivering from the Austrians, has suffered more than Austria. Everywhere the unfortunate peasants left their houses, the soldiers broke the furniture and took it to the camp, where you could see beds, mattresses, mirrors; they burned the houses; the number of *traînards* [stragglers] was immense. I don't know how the corps d'armée could live where other troops had already passed. The first destroyed everything—wine was flowing in the cellars, flour was spread about in the houses; the officers could not hinder it. It was a horrible disorder. An honest and tender-hearted man is not made for the profession of arms in the present century."

If such are the complaints of Pion in the Austrian campaign, and afterwards in the campaign in Prussia, you can easily imagine what they became in the famous Russian campaign and in the retreat of the French army from Moscow. His account of this terrible drama constantly recalled to me Tolstoi's famous novel 'War and Peace.' We find in it the same precision in the details, we see what military glory is made of, we see ambition at war not only with men, but with the natural elements, with destiny. The impression is very powerful, and what we find besides in Pion's journal is the spectacle of human selfishness—men reduced to the state of brutal savages by hunger and cold, lying for a crust of bread, concealing a little liquor from those who yesterday were their best friends, debased by misfortune, with the exception of a few heroes—more saints than heroes—who, in the worst of times, never forgot the divine precept: "Love thy neighbor as thyself."

Pion's military career ended after this terrible campaign in Russia. He became a Colonel in the Imperial Guard; he had no enthusiasm or affection for the Emperor, and had always remained a Royalist at heart. In 1814, after having fired his guns for the defence of the Empire, he accepted with pleasure the new régime, and took Napoleon at his word when he said, in his adieu at Fontainebleau, "Be faithful to the new King whom France has chosen." He would certainly have become a General under the Bourbons, but his Russian campaign had much impaired his health, and he died prematurely with the rank of Colonel at the age of forty-nine years, on the 27th of April, 1819.

Correspondence.

THE GRAND RAPIDS POST-OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There appeared in the *Nation* of August 1 a letter from Mr. F. W. Ball, editor of the *Democrat* of this city, criticising the report of the Civil-Service Commission on the Grand Rapids Post-office and the remarks of the *Nation* on the report. We have nothing to do with Postmaster Blair's contention with the Commission except in so far as Mr. Ball, in his zeal to defend Mr. Blair and make him out a civil-service reformer, has left the impression that there have been no changes in the force of the office on account of politics, but that all changes were made either for cause or by voluntary resignation. This casts a direct reflection on us, and on this we desire a hearing.

Mr. Ball, in his letter, says: "Not a single change has been made in the personnel of the office for political reasons. I do not believe any post-office in the country can give a better record from a civil-service-reform standpoint than can the Grand Rapids Post-office under the management of Mr. Blair."

The facts are, that every one of the subscribers to this letter was notified by Mr. Blair, either personally or by his assistant, that his resignation would be accepted, and every one of us assured by Mr. Blair personally that our work was entirely satisfactory. Furthermore, he said to some of us plainly, and to others he just as plainly intimated, that our politics was the sole reason for asking us to resign. He spoke in every instance of party pressure as compelling the step.

Mr. Ball is a warm personal friend of Mr. Blair, and his zeal for Mr. Blair's retention has led him to do us an injustice.

We subscribe after our names the positions formerly held.

Malcolm M. Moore,
Cashier and Chief of Registry Division.
William S. Earle,
Superintendent of Carriers.
W. H. Loomis, Money-Order Clerk.
Charles B. Richmond, Mail-Carrier.
C. W. Moore, Mail-Carrier.
Myron E. Purie, Superintendent of Carriers.
L. D. Stewerd, Clerk of Registry Division.

Grand Rapids, Mich., August 14, 1889.

PRESIDENT HARRISON AND THE NEW-MEXICO SURVEYOR-GENERALSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: New Mexico has for years been the theatre of the most outrageous "land steals" that ever disgraced a government. The numerous Spanish and Mexican grants with which the Territory was encumbered, and the difficulty of ascertaining their true limits, have made it a place shunned by honest settlers and a perfect paradise for thieves. Men like Elkins and Dorsey, who had made immense fortunes here, saw in the former Republican administrations no check put to their operations, and naturally looked forward to a long reign of plunder and rapine.

In May, 1885, President Cleveland sent Geo. W. Julian of Indiana to New Mexico as Surveyor-General. Since the final abolition of slavery the one question of absorbing interest to Mr. Julian had been the land question, and his speeches and review articles had made his name familiar in this connection. His early championship of the homestead policy was also known, and his appointment was hailed with delight by the masses here, and regarded by the land-grabbers as a direct slap in the face. They at once resolved to defeat his confirmation by the Senate, and were so far successful that he was not confirmed till March, 1887, nearly two years after his appointment. For this, Democrats and Republicans were perhaps equally to blame, for the rogues are assuredly not all of one party.

In March, 1887, therefore, Mr. Julian was commissioned to serve as Surveyor-General of New Mexico for four years. Immediately

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

after General Harrison's election, however, the old clamor against an officer who refused to be used was revived, and the new President was scarcely inaugurated when strong pressure was brought to bear on him to remove Mr. Julian. No charges of any kind were filed, but it was urged that he was not a resident of the Territory and not interested in its advancement and settlement. He had examined and reported on hundreds of grant cases, and pointed out the way to recover millions of acres of land for the people; but if his policy should be carried out, the Dorseyites and Elkinsites would lose much of their ill-gotten gains. Hence the demand for his official scalp. Time wore on, however, and no change was made. It looked as if President Harrison would stand by his pledges in one instance at least. But on the 5th of August Mr. Julian was removed, and a Mr. Hobart of Las Vegas, N. M., was appointed to succeed him. No one knows who Mr. Hobart is except that he is a dealer in ice. The general belief is that he is somebody's man. Mr. Julian wrote at once to a superior officer in Washington, inquiring the cause for his removal, and was informed that it was "for political reasons." H. W.

SANTA FÉ, August 20, 1889.

WOMAN-BURNING IN ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If "E. W. H." will be content with but a single case of English woman-burning, he need go no further than the familiar one of the Witch of Eye, Margery Jourdemayn (or Jordeine, Jordan, as Holinshed and Shakespeare write her name), in 1441. The most explicit of the contemporary accounts of her fate, however—as that in the chronicle ascribed to William Gregory, Mayor of London, "On Syn Simon and Jude ys eve was the wycche be syde Westemyster brent in Smethefylde," or that in the "English Chronicle written before 1471" edited by Davies for the Camden Society, "Wherfore, and also for cause of relaps, the same wicche was brend in Smythfeld, in the vigily of Saint Simon and Jude"—are scarcely more full than Shakespeare's "The Witch in Smithfield shall be burnt to ashes." And, if he wishes to revel in such horrors, he has but to trace the work of the statute *De hæretico comburendo* and its post-Reformation substitutes, as recounted by Fox and the rest of the martyrologists. From many instances like that of old Joan Boughton, in 1494, who, "in the midst of the fire, cried to God," it is clear that the victims, women and men alike, were burned alive.

But all these cases were of ecclesiastical cognizance; that of the Witch of Eye not less than those of the heretics—for, as I pointed out in a former letter, Henry IV. in 1407 committed the crime of sorcery to the care of the bishops, and theirs it remained till in 1541 the statute of Henry VIII. restored it to the civil courts.

> "I come before the spiritualité:
> Two cardynals and byshoppis fyve,"

mourns the accomplice of Margery Jordan, Dame Eleanor, Duchess of Gloucester, in the lament which a contemporary verse-writer has put in her mouth. It is hardly fair, therefore, to say without explanation, as do some authorities (*e. g.*, Du Boys), that the English common law punished witchcraft by the stake. With nearly as much justice, indeed, might the trial of Joan of Arc, in 1431, be laid at the door of English law; for, though the tribunal which judged her was a French ecclesiastical one, it was only in pursuance of the English provision that the clergy had jurisdiction at all, the Parlement of Paris having in 1390 taken all French cases of witchcraft into secular hands. It is true that a marginal note on a Cambridge manuscript of Britton declares that, though the investigation of cases of sorcery belongs to "the inquirers of Holy Church," yet, "if the king by inquest find any persons guilty of such horrible sin, he may put them to death, as a good marshal of Christendom"; and there is record, before the fifteenth century, of several cases at common law. But all of which we have mention seem to have resulted in acquittal. Only when they had been convicted, like heretics, under the canon law, do we know the common law to have actually burned them.

But "E. W. H." need not put up with such equivocal instances: I have dwelt on them only to show that burning for witchcraft was never properly English. Woman-burning, alas, was common enough under the criminal law of England. Burning was a penalty for many crimes—for treason, including husband-murder and what not, as well as for arson; and that "ghastly gallantry" which has struck several of your correspondents in the procedure of the New England courts began very early in English history. One tenth-century law even went so far as to prescribe not only that the female offender—the crime in this case was theft by a slave—should be burned, while the male was only stoned, but that the penalty should be inflicted by women, eighty of whom should attend, each bearing a log for the fire. The punishment of a woman for treason (and this included so-called treason to the master or to the husband) continued to be burning long after that penalty had been abolished for other crimes, even for heresy. The latest case known to Pike is that of Mary Bayley, who, for killing her husband, was burned at Portsmouth on Monday, March 8, 1784. The origin of this strange discrimination between the sexes is hard to guess. Pike thinks it a relic of the subjection of women, and instances as analogous the Roman treatment of slaves, who, in like manner, were burned for crimes which brought lighter punishment to the freeman.

But in all these cases under the secular law it seems to have been the custom, as "E. W. H." points out, to inflict death before burning. On the Continent this mercy lay often in the discretion of the court; and a condition of its granting was not seldom the confession of the crime. In this case, and in case there had been no aggravating circumstances, the prisoner was suffered, after sentence had been pronounced, to fall on his knees before the court and humbly crave its forbearance; whereupon the court of its mercy instructed the executioner to strangle or behead before burning. "Geduldig und christlich strangulirt, und der Corper zu Eschen verbrent," is the phrasing of a German sixteenth-century record that lies before me. And this hope was one of the most powerful levers in producing those "voluntary" confessions which still puzzle so many honest folk.

Had not the printer improved upon the manuscript of my former letter by the omission of a comma, it would not have been possible for your correspondent Mr. Weston-Smith to so far misunderstand me as to suppose I meant to ascribe to the Puritans of New England the invention of that retaliation-in-kind for arson which is perhaps older than criminal legislation itself. Certainly this "kind of *lex talionis*" antedates the time of Edward I., when Blackstone first discovers it in operation, by far more than that epoch does the Puritan one. I spoke of arson in general, and of its time-honored penalty. It is notable that, for this particular crime, English law, so late as Britton's time at least, made no distinction between the sexes. The changed usage followed by our Massachusetts forefathers was perhaps due to the strange law of Henry VI., in 1429, by which, to discourage blackmailing threats, arson was made high treason.

After writing thus far, I discover that Dr. George H. Moore has discussed, with his usual conscientious scholarship, the question of witch-punishment at the hands of English law in his 'Notes on the History of Witchcraft in Massachusetts.' G. L. B.

THE WHITE LIBRARY, CORNELL UNIVERSITY, August 17, 1889.

A LAST WORD ON THE EXCAVATIONS AT DELPHI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As some misconceptions seem to exist in regard to the relations and action of the various parties interested to promote the exploration of Delphi, and as many inquiries have been addressed to me, since the publication in the *Nation* of August 1 of the letter of Mr. Stillman, as to the weight of his assertions that he could "state facts which would show that the American School has really no chance of getting the concession under circumstances which would permit us in common decency to accept it, if at all," and that "scientific morality absolutely forbids us to move any further in this matter until the French are out of the way," I request you to allow me to lay before your readers a statement of the facts which have determined the Archæological Institute to endeavor to secure the concession. I do this reluctantly, for even a seeming controversy is to be regretted in a matter in which the interests of knowledge only should be concerned, and in which national jealousies and personal considerations should have no part.

In order to make the whole affair clear, the narrative must begin at some distance back. For some years past the Greek Government have been endeavoring to negotiate a commercial treaty with France, and as, under this treaty, certain important advantages would be secured for Greece, the Administration coupled with it as a makeweight a convention conceding to the French the right to investigate the site of Delphi. The two instruments were ratified by the Greek Chamber. In France the treaty was rejected by the Senate, and, for the time, much to the disappointment of the Greeks, the matter fell to the ground.

In 1887 it was again taken up; a new treaty was negotiated with some modifications, but with the convention in regard to Delphi attached to it. It was brought before the French Senate, and in its turn was rejected. This rejection took place near the end of last year.

At this time our able and excellent Minister at Athens, Mr. Fearn, understanding that the arrangement with the French had failed, asked the Prime Minister of Greece, Mr. Tricoupis, whether the concession of the right to excavate at Delphi was now open. Mr. Tricoupis assured him that it was, but added that the expense attending the expropriation of the village of Castri, which stands upon the site of the ancient city, would be very heavy, and might prove an obstacle to the undertaking of the work. At the time when the treaty was being discussed, the French School at Athens had placed its estimate of the cost of buying out the village at 40,000 drachmai. The Greek Government, regarding this estimate as much less than the actual cost would prove to be, promised, as another inducement to secure the adoption of the treaty, to pay the expense of dispossession up to 60,000 drachmai, the remainder, whatever it might be, to be met by

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the French. It further employed an engineer to make a survey of the site and an estimate of the cost of expropriation. The probable cost was fixed by him at 500,000 drachmai. Not satisfied, however, with this, the Government then had the whole survey and estimates revised by a commission of French engineers in their service. The probable cost was set by them at 430,000 drachmai. The aim of the Government was to learn the facts as exactly as possible, in order to secure a basis for arbitration between the investigators and the proprietors at Delphi.

Mr. Fearn reported what he had learned, in letters to persons in this country whom he knew to be interested in promoting the study of antiquity, and who would recognize the splendor of the work to be done at Delphi. Moved by his statements, a committee was appointed at a meeting that had been summoned by Bishop Potter, and charged with the duty of endeavoring to obtain means to provide a permanent fund for the support of the school at Athens, and to secure for it the privilege of making excavations at Delphi. This committee, composed of gentlemen of the highest distinction in New York, was actively engaged in its work when a letter from Mr. Stillman appeared in your columns (the *Nation*, March 28), asserting (I have not the letter at hand to refer to, but I believe I do not misrepresent its purport) that if the promoters of the undertaking on the part of America understood correctly the position of affairs, they could not pursue the work; that the claims of the French were still morally valid; and that our interference in the business was unjustifiable. This letter, coming from a person who might be supposed to be not only well informed, but likely to be well disposed to the undertaking of any honorable task by his countrymen, naturally awakened public doubt in regard to the propriety of the enterprise, and impeded the work of the Committee.

It happened that when this letter reached Athens, Prof. Hale of Cornell University and Prof. Palmer of Harvard were there. It led them to make inquiries at headquarters regarding the foundation of its assertions, and at the end of April Prof. Hale addressed to me a letter, approved by Prof. Palmer, containing the result of their careful investigations and of conversations with Mr. Tricoupis. In a subsequent letter Prof. Palmer summed up their conclusions as follows:

"The French are now entirely out of account. They will not obtain the concession even if we refuse it. The Greeks, whether wisely or unwisely, saw fit to try to obtain a certain commercial treaty by coupling with it an archæological privilege. The treaty has been twice rejected, and the whole temper of French legislation is against it. The Greeks cannot now with self-respect grant as a free privilege what they before treated as a condition.

"By any sum we pay for the expropriation of the peasant village at Delphi the Greek Government will gain nothing, and cannot therefore be supposed to be dealing with us in a jockeying spirit. That the amount suggested by Mr. Tricoupis as probable is not excessive, is evident from this, that it is the estimate of French engineers who have carefully surveyed the ground.

"The Greek Government look with a favorable eye on the introduction of Americans in this way into the land. It will be more for her advantage to have us do the work at Delphi than to do it herself.

"These considerations seemed to Mr. Hale and me entirely to set aside the reasonings of Mr. Stillman."

In the *Nation* of May 9 appeared a letter from Dr. Waldstein, one of the directors of the school, presenting other considerations in reply to Mr. Stillman.

In view of all the circumstances of the case, the Council of the Institute, at its annual meeting on the 12th of May, resolved to proceed with the work, provided the means for doing so could be obtained. They appointed a committee to prepare an appeal to the public, and to take other requisite steps. The Committee have done so, and the appeal will shortly be issued.

I believe that this bare statement of facts affords a sufficient answer to the main assertions of Mr. Stillman in the letter published in the *Nation* of August 1. It is not necessary to deal with his insinuations of bad faith on the part of the Greek Government, but it may perhaps be desirable to point out that there is no ground for his assumption that any discourtesy has been shown to the French School, or any lack of consideration for its just claims.

It is natural that the French should feel not merely regret, but irritation also, at the loss of the opportunity to perform the most splendid piece of exploration on classical ground that remains to be accomplished. But they have no right to play the part of the dog in the manger. They have no preëmption on the soil of Delphi. The Germans, if it comes to a question of priority, have the earliest claim. Karl Otfried Müller, with his pupil Ernst Curtius, were the first to do good work on the ground. Such work as has been done there since by individual members of the French School has been fragmentary and open to serious criticism. Moreover, in the year 1876, long before the proposal of a concession to France, our Minister to Athens, Gen. John Meredith Read, was asked to sound the Greek Government as to whether the privilege of excavating Delphi would be granted to Americans. He received a wholly favorable reply. The means for the work could not then be obtained. There was no organization for the purpose, and the matter was allowed to drop. But this was one of the motives that led to the foundation of the Archæological Institute in 1879, and the hope to be able finally to do this great work has never ceased to be cherished by it.

Your obedient servant,

CHARLES ELIOT NORTON,

President of the Archæological Institute of America.

ASHFIELD, MASS., August 16, 1889.

Notes.

THE Rev. A. K. Glover, B.Sc., Ph.D., will shortly publish a small volume entitled 'The Jews of the Far East, or the Jews of the Extreme Eastern Diaspora,' with the original Chinese texts of the inscriptions discovered at Kai-fung-fû.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will shortly publish 'Fact, Fancy, and Fable,' a cyclopædic work by H. F. Reddall; and 'Opening the Oyster,' a story of adventure, by Chas. L. Marsh.

A new, revised and enlarged edition of Anne Ayres's 'Life of Dr. Muhlenberg' will be brought out directly by Thomas Whittaker.

In a late issue of their "Nuggets Series," called 'The Ideals of the Republic,' the Messrs. Putnam grouped the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, Washington's two Inaugurals and Farewell Address, and Lincoln's two and his Gettysburg Address. Perhaps a demand for this handy compilation in a less dainty and costly form has led the publishers to issue 'Great Words from Great Americans' (the sub-title of the former volume), using the same plates with a bold typography, but inserting Washington's circular letter of congratulation and advice to the Governors of the thirteen States. In all respects except the elaborateness of the binding, the new and slightly larger edition is equal to the old. With the foregoing we receive a fresh Nuggets volume, an excellent selection of four of Heinrich Zschökke's 'Tales.' The last, "Walpurgis Night," we are told, has never been published in English before.

Mr. S. G. Owen's critical edition of Ovid's 'Tristia' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) is the most complete and valuable "apparatus" for the study of this work that has ever appeared. The editor has personally collated twenty-eight manuscripts, and has had the good fortune to discover, in the Bodleian, Politian's copy of the Parma edition of 1477, with his marginal collations—a volume long supposed to be lost. The book is illustrated with facsimile pages of the Marcianus and Turonensis manuscripts.

In the second edition of Dr. Robinson Ellis's 'Commentary on Catullus' (Clarendon Press), especial stress is laid on our obligations to the scholars of the Renaissance for their work towards restoring the true Catullian text. Although Dr. Ellis thinks that disappointingly little has been effected in this direction since that period, he by no means neglects to consider the work of modern scholars, while his own services as an expositor of the poet are too well recognized to call for further mention here.

Several distinctly medical books have found their rather inappropriate way to our table. Of these the seventh volume of the 'International Medical Annual,' 1889 (E. B. Treat & Co.), is a really good summary of recent medical progress—progress meaning apparent advance in some directions and the burial of new hopes in others. The most interesting of its papers to general readers, and one of considerable intrinsic importance, is that on "Diseases of Women in Relation to Dress," by J. W. Taylor of Birmingham. In it he not merely points the old moral as to insufficient airspace from tight lacing, but assigns to the unnatural compression by the clothes of the civilized woman such consequences, more or less remote, as anæmia or deficiency of good blood, gastric ulcer, gall stones, and that very curious affection, movable kidney. Unlike some critics, he does not destroy without presenting a practicable remedy, for which the essay should be consulted.

As good an example as one could wish of the purely academic work produced in France under the influence of the French Academy and its elaborate system of prize essays is M. David Sauvageot's 'Le Réalisme et le Naturalisme dans la littérature et dans l'art' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), which is a good, honest, solid specimen of journeyman work without a particle of inspiration or a flash of insight. Perhaps its chief use to us here is that its abundant footnotes constitute a sort of bibliography to the frequent French essays on the subject. At bottom M. David Sauvageot's conclusions seem to us thoroughly sound.

The promised pamphlet, 'Inscriptions on Tombstones in Milford, Conn., erected prior to 1800,' has been published, and is obtainable of Mr. Dwight E. Bowers, Box 595, New Haven. Mr. Nathan G. Pond has transcribed the epitaphs line for line, and added brief genealogical notes concerning the persons thus commemorated on 470 stones. Some of the stones are pictured from photographs. The publication is in every way creditable, except that an index has been forgotten—a strange oversight.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The Rev. Edmund F. Slafter of Boston has printed privately his curious paper on 'Royal Arms and Other Regal Emblems and Memorials in Use in the Colonies before the American Revolution,' read last January before the Massachusetts Historical Society. It deals with geographical names, names of streets and inns, newspaper vignettes, etc. Mr. Slafter has discovered extant only six of the royal arms in use before the Revolution, and is able to picture five of these, including two that have been transferred to churches in New Brunswick. The first figured is at once the crudest and most interesting of them all, for it remains *in situ* in St. James's Church, Goose Creek, near Charleston, S. C. It was in plaster, fastened by leaden bands, and escaped all the ravages of war, foreign and civil; but the earthquake of August 31, 1886, quite destroyed it, and its restoration depended on a copy in oil made for Mr. Slafter before that event. It is now booked for another century.

With the recurrence of August in the calendar appears the pamphlet Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in the preceding year—viz., those of the thirty-seventh meeting held last August at Cleveland. The most significant paper printed in full is President Langley's address, a summary sketch of the growth of the doctrine of radiant heat. Peculiar to this issue is a list of deceased (active) members from the beginning, with dates of birth and death.

The eighth annual report of the Dante Society announces that "a number of gentlemen connected in various ways with Harvard University, stimulated by the appearance of Prof. Fay's work ['Concordance of the Divina Commedia']," have undertaken a concordance of the 'Vita Nuova' and the "Canzoniere." This is likely to be accomplished within a year, and hope is held out of publication through the Society. The pamphlet contains the usual Dante bibliography, for the year 1888, by William C. Lane; and a prize essay, by George R. Carpenter, on "The Episode of the Donna Pietosa," an attempted harmony of the 'Vita Nuova' and the 'Convito.'

The editors of the new *American Amateur Photographer* (Brunswick, Me.), Messrs. F. C. Beach and W. H. Burbank, are quite right in offering their "provincial" publication for comparison with any of their "contemporaries published under seemingly more favorable conditions." In fact, the two numbers before us (July, August) are distinguished by tastefulness and accuracy of typography and by excellence of make-up. There is nothing amateurish about either. The book reviews, and the criticism of commercial supplies after practical tests, are capital features. The reports of societies, special correspondence, contributed papers, etc., are full and valuable. Illustrations by process and photogravure are given. It marks the growth of amateur photography that a number of hotels keep "dark-rooms" for the use of tourist amateurs, some "with running water." The journal makes a very promising beginning. For convenience' sake, a New York office has been opened at 22 Burling Slip.

The *English Historical Review* for July is an interesting number. The first article is by Judge William O'Connor Morris, "The War of 1870-1: After Sedan"—the sequel to a previous article. Its aim appears to be to do justice to "the extraordinary powers of which Chanzy gave proof, the remarkable skill shown by Faidherbe, and the energy, misplaced as it often was, of Gambetta"—qualities too much ignored by the German writers. "Recent Criticisms upon the Life of Savonarola," by E. Armstrong, expresses the opinion that, with all the high merit of Villari's work, "the life of the friar as a figure in secular history has yet to be written." Prof. Cyril Ransome, author of one of the best of the short histories of England, gives a lucid account of the battle of Towton, with a plan, the fruit of studies upon the spot. "The Lords of Chios," the subject of an article by J. Theodore Bent, were a company of Genoese merchants who, having advanced a *mahone*, or special loan, to the republic, ruled the island under the authority of Genoa from 1346 to 1566. The closing article is by Rev. W. A. B. Coolidge, "The Republic of Gersau." Travellers in Switzerland will perhaps remember the village, at the foot of the Rigi, which was once an independent republic —"probably the smallest state which has ever had such extensive rights." During the existence of the Swiss Confederacy, before its overthrow in 1798, Gersau was "an acknowledged and independent ally of the four districts which formed the inner circle and nucleus of the Everlasting League"; and at present, although annexed to the canton of Schwyz, it still preserves its communal autonomy. The "Notes and Documents" and "Reviews of Books" contain, as usual, much very valuable matter.

The place of honor in the Royal Geographical Society's Proceedings, as well as in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, for August is given to Dr. Nansen's spirited account of his adventurous journey across Greenland. The former also publishes the interesting discussion which took place after the reading of the paper before the society by such Arctic veterans as Admirals McClintock and Ommanney, Sir Allen Young, and Dr. Rae. This is followed by a paper, with a map, showing the distribution of the mountain tribes in northern Morocco, by W. B. Harris. This gentleman, having established friendly relations with the Sherif of Wazan, has been able to travel with safety in regions where Europeans have rarely, if ever, penetrated. The mountaineers are better off than the lowland Moors, as they are practically independent of the Sultan. There is also an account of a successful attempt to establish communication between the rich mining regions of northern Bolivia and Peru with the Amazons, other than by the Madeira, by a Brazilian named Labre. The route taken appears to have been through a region almost wholly unexplored. At one point they came upon a tribe whose "men wear their hair long, plaited like the Chinese," and have on "girdles and petticoats." In another tribe "some of the women are light-colored and have traces of beauty: none are allowed to enter a temple or to take part in the religious or fetish ceremonies, and it is forbidden to them to know the names or the forms of the idols. The idols are not of human form, but are geometrical figures made of wood and polished." The second article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* is by Dr. John Murray, of the *Challenger*, on the marine deposits in the Indian and adjacent oceans, accompanied by a colored map showing their distribution. This magazine also gives an excellent portrait of Dr. Nansen, who is a young man of twenty-seven, with a strongly-marked face.

Parts 23-28 of the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kunst' (Berlin: G. Grote; New York: Westermann) conclude the division Industrial Art, and contain instalments of Painting and of Etching and Wood-Engraving. There are many illustrations of German painting, and a special chapter is devoted to the Age of Dürer and Holbein, wherein we remark two interesting pen-drawings by Dürer, one as a boy of fourteen and the other a youth of twenty-three. Dr. von Lützow's discourse on engraving is accompanied by some very fine copies of early etchings. Some of the colored plates of these instalments are noticeably good, as those which illustrate color-work in glass.

—The September *Atlantic* is most notable for its articles upon public questions. The reasons against the assumption of exclusive American control over the Isthmus Canal are stated with great vigor by Stuart F. Weld, in a paper which reviews the diplomatic negotiations with the Colombian Government and the action of the Senate in regard to the matter, and brings this episode of recent Republican history into comparison with the political ideal involved in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. The author holds that exclusive American control is a new and retrogressive doctrine, which would result in a wrongful aggression upon the sovereignty of Colombia, inconsistent with the practice of nations in this half-century, and which would, furthermore, afford less stable security for ourselves than would be gained by the neutralization of the waterway. His argument is both moral and utilitarian. A second important paper is that by E. G. Scott upon the history and present power of the French Canadians in Quebec and the adjoining provinces. He shows the high probability of the overthrow of the English in Canada by the natural increase of the French, exhibits the extraordinary pertinacity and conservatism of the French character, ideas, and institutions, and foresees the question of annexation taking on the simple phase of the English race in Canada trying merely to preserve its integrity and national characteristics by joining with us. The duty of the State in preserving the Sabbath as a day of rest is very temperately and instructively discussed by C. W. Clark from an entirely secular point of view, and the paper carries great weight in consequence. We notice, also, an admirable sketch of James Wilson of Pennsylvania and his part in founding the Government.

—*Harper's* gives its readers a large selection from the works of American artists at the Paris Exhibition in twenty engravings, most of which are full-page and highly finished. The text is by Theodore Child, and abounds in the vocabulary of the impressionist and in eulogy of an unrestrained kind. There is certainly great reason to congratulate ourselves that the work of American-born artists in Paris and London shows so great an improvement over what it was twenty years ago; and if Mr. Child had said only half as much in praise of it as he has done, our satisfaction need not have been less. The more important part of his article is devoted to Whistler, whom he appreciates like a disciple and loads with every phrase of æsthetic refinement, and to Dannat, of one of whose portraits he says: "There is no old master of the days when men knew how to paint who can show a finer or a more complete piece of work than this girl's head." Other American artists are received by the critic in the same royal way. One turns from a text of this nature, surfeited and cloyed, to the engravings, which needed no such comment, and which of themselves do more than pages of such writing to instruct the reader in the growth of American art abroad in the last decade. Mr. Child also contributes an illustrated paper upon Moscow in his usual manner. M. Edmond de Pressensé gives a clear bird's-eye view of the condition of the religious sects of France, in which the influence of the decree of Papal infallibility on the old Gallican spirit in the Church of France is instructively brought out,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and the decay of prelates of the old liberal type is lamented. "London Mock Parliaments" and "Kentucky Fairs" are topics that lighten the number with a semi-humorous interest, and there is the usual fiction.

—The *Andover Review* for August may be called a very good number indeed. It contains three articles each of which is distinctly above the average of magazine work. Prof. Shaler, in his "Chance or Design," unfolds as well as may be in comparatively brief space the newer views of teleology; and, while he admits that no argument that he knows of is absolutely destructive of the hypothesis of Chance, gives in his adhesion to the theory of Design in nature. It need not be said that this is not a revived Paleyism, though in it science seems to be giving back to religious thought some of her spoils from dogmatism. Another article which is both valuable and significant is that of Prof. George T. Ladd, on "The Psychology of the Modern Novel." Neither romanticists nor naturalists are likely to read it with entire approval, but it expresses almost exactly, we should think, the feeling of that newest school in literature whose pronunciamiento was the Academy address of M. Melchior de Vogüé. Perhaps the most scholarly article in the number is Mr. L. N. Dembitz's "The Ten Lost Tribes," in which he attacks with much learning and puts to rout the popular notion that the ten tribes have continued to exist. This notion, he says, is still commonly received. We should not have thought so; but the fact matters little, since Mr. Dembitz's article has an historical and critical value quite apart from its polemics. The rest of the number consists of the usual notices of books and events, and of a "Study" of Buddhism, the author of which does not appear to go very far wrong—partly, perhaps, because he does not go very far.

— It is rather remarkable that, although the last ten years have been the most notable in the advanced study of American ornithology, no one book, among the many that have appeared during that time, has in any way supplanted Audubon, with all his mistakes and inaccuracies, as the popular historian of the American bird. Mr. H. Nehrling now attempts this task in a subscription work which shall combine the most modern research with affectionate and sympathetic treatment of bird-life ('North American Birds.' In twelve parts. Part I. Milwaukee: George Brumder). Mr. Nehrling is an independent student and observer; his work is based on first-hand knowledge, and not, like that of the many plagiarists of Audubon and Wilson, on the labor and (often mistaken) conclusions of others. Consequently, he is at once an authority speaking *ex cathedra*, and a man who knows and loves birds personally. Mr. Nehrling writes good English, and, apart from a certain amount of rather maudlin verse which he has an apparent fondness for, his work is pleasant reading. The typography of the book is excellent—clear of print and wide of margin. The illustrations, prepared by Prof. Ridgway and others, are accurate, and, in many cases, of birds whose portraits have hitherto been unknown to ornithological galleries — which atones for their immense inferiority as works of art to the yet unrivalled masterpieces of the pioneers.

—M. André Theuriet is one of the later recruits of the large and increasing army of writers of memoirs and recollections. His "Souvenirs" have been flowing in a gentle and not unpleasing stream through the *Revue Bleue* during the last six months. They possess a certain quiet charm, a quality of pleasantness which carries the reader easily through them, and yet, if the reader be also a reviewer, he finds not very much to say about them when he has come to the end. The instalment, however, which appeared on July 6, is in some regards noteworthy. It contains Theuriet's memories and impressions of the Coup d'État of the 2d of December, 1851. Theuriet was at that time a clerk in the civil service, attached to the Registrar's Office of Bar-le-Duc. He had joined not more than a couple of months before, and was just becoming used to the daily routine of his work, when he saw Louis Napoleon's placard one morning announcing his dissolution of the Assembly, and his appeal to a plébiscite. Beside it was posted a circular from the prefect, threatening in tone, serving as a sort of commentary. These fell upon the ardent youth like a blow, and he hurried to the office to free his mind to his colleagues. They all agreed with him; the Registrar himself, an old man and an old soldier, marching up and down the office and denouncing the usurper. Just at this moment the figure of a man in uniform passed the window and a heavy step was heard in the corridor. Order was instantly restored, and work hurriedly taken up again. Theuriet felt sure in his own mind that it was he who was to be arrested and carried off on account of a little secret society that he and his friend Laguerre had founded, and he suffered a good deal of anguish before the purpose of the gendarme's visit—which was to buy a stamp—was disclosed. Apparently there was no further or more active resistance in that public office. And so it was, unhappily, all over France.

—To the humiliations and degradation that followed the Coup d'État M. Theuriet attributes the pessimism of the generation that is now passing out of active life. After recounting some of these he says:

"It is good to recall these things at a moment when certain people are threatening us with beginning over again the adventure of the Second of December. It is good to tell the present generation into what a lamentable state of soul the régime inaugurated in 1851 cast the generation which then came to its twentieth year. The young pessimists of today maintain that their sadness and discouragement have their roots in the unhappy disasters of 1871. But after that fatal war the losses were in some sort only material. We were well beaten, and honor was safe. There was nothing comparable to the moral disarray that followed the cruel date of the Second of December."

The youth of France that had been brought up under the influence of the liberal ideas of the reign of Louis Philippe, and were still effervescent with the feelings of 1848, "were roused in full dream by a brutal awakening. Their idols of the evening before lay in the mud, the parliamentary tribune was destroyed, the newspapers suppressed or enslaved." A silence of thought and a general flattening out of character followed, and no activity was left save among business men and speculators. "Young people, utterly cast down, asked themselves whether they had not been dupes of a dream, whether the true path, after all, did not lie in the search for money or pleasure. Then some let themselves slide gently down the slope, and thought no more of anything but amusement; while others, few in number, disabused, steeped in disgust to the lips, plunged in silence into a hateful despair." M. Theuriet closes his chapter by a reference to the just mentioned address of M. de Vogüé at the Academy, which was so much in the tone of the young man rejoicing in his youth, having only hopes for the future, and no fears, and ends with an aspiration: "My earnest wish for these new generations that are 'en travail d'une poésie et d'une foi' is, that they may not meet on the threshold of their youth a defeat like that of 1851; that they may not undergo any moral break-up such as that of which their elders still feel in themselves the bitterness and the rancor."

— The death of Félix Pyat, which occurred at St. Gratien on August 3, recalls a part of his life which many had forgotten. The man whom most people have known only as a fiery red republican was, in his earlier days, a journalist and dramatic writer, one of whose plays, at least, still holds the stage, and a romanticist and dandy of the times of the *gilet rouge*. He was the friend and companion of Alfred de Musset and his set, the ardent disciple of Hugo, the not less ardent and quarrelsome enemy of Jules Janin. But 1848 put an end to his literary work, and since then he has been a sort of stormy petrel in French politics, always busiest in a gale of wind. Among his political triumphs he could boast that he had been condemned in fines amounting to 212,000 francs; to twenty-nine years and five months in prison; to five years of surveillance and ten of interdiction; once he was sentenced to transportation, and once—after the Commune, a crowning mercy—to death. The general amnesty brought him back from exile to France again, where he lived quietly till last spring, when he was elected to the Chamber. His time, however, was past, and, though he has sometimes spoken, his influence has not been great. He was in his eightieth year.

—Mr. Stillman writes us from Italy under date of August 6:

"'N. J. B.,' in the *Nation*, No. 1252, replies to my assertion as to Greek temples and their location, but is singularly unfortunate in his choice of the material on which to contest my conclusion. The great temple of early Akragas was the treasury, and was the upper point of the citadel. It still remains, and is enclosed in the church which succeeded it in the worship of the place. There are the remains of two temples in the citadel. The question of the relation of the 'Rupe Atenea' to the ancient citadel is still an open one, and I do not believe there ever was an important temple on the former. The line of temples which now remain, from the so-called Temple of Juno to that of Jupiter, were placed along the wall, which was made by cutting down the rock on which the lower part of the city was built so as to leave a perpendicular face; and along this ran a road connecting the whole, back of which is the line of temples. Seen from the sea, they would have been more or less lost against the town rising in its splendid amphitheatre behind them, while they would have served as depots of arms and ammunition to the defenders of the walls. The Olympieum at Syracuse was the key of the strategical position from that side, and was fortified as such, while the temple of Diana was lost in the midst of the town in a position of no conspicuousness. The temple of Segesta was certainly in the enclosure of the walls, and was defended from the rear by an impassable ravine, while the soil of the hill on which it stands is full of débris of constructions. 'N. J. B.' must be singularly unobservant of the character of ancient sites if he expects to see house-walls on them, or find evidence of their having ever existed, without excavation. If he will read his Thucydides carefully in reference to this point, he will see how important were the temples in military operations; and it is matter of common knowledge that they were the city treasuries. But it was not so much as a part of the city defences that the temples were so placed as because, as sanctuaries and treasuries, they must have a defensible site. I have, unlike 'N. J. B.,' visited all the Greek temples with, I believe, one exception; and of all that I know, those of Agrigentum instanced by him are those which least support his view. He considers the wall in question of no strength, but it was not so considered by the Carthaginians or Romans, who preferred the attack from the southwest, where the hill was much higher, and the city was always taken from that side. The ancient scarp

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

has been eaten away by the sea air ages ago, but traces of the road are still to be seen, and there is indication that it was originally surmounted by a wall which was, in fact, indispensable for the protection of the defenders from the hostile missiles. The 'Castor and Pollux' was in a depression, and would not have been seen from the sea, which, by the way, is several miles off."

HERNDON'S LINCOLN.

Herndon's Lincoln: The True Story of a Great Life. By William H. Herndon, for twenty years his friend and law-partner, and Jesse William Weik, A.M. 3 vols., pp. 638, 12mo. Belford, Clarke & Co.

MR. HERNDON'S personal recollections of Lincoln will doubtless remain the most authentic and trustworthy source of information concerning the great man in the period prior to his election to the Presidency. His real subject is the growth and development of Lincoln's powers and character. From many other sources we may get fuller material for the part of Lincoln's career which properly belongs to history; but Herndon's narrative gives, as nothing else is likely to give, the material from which we may form a true picture of the man from infancy to maturity. The sincerity and honesty of the biographer appear on every page. It is impossible to doubt that he has meant to tell us candidly what he knows about Lincoln. His long and intimate association with his hero gave him unequalled opportunity of knowing and estimating the man. He does not look at Lincoln's career in the light of the great events and great responsibilities of his Presidency, but interprets these in view of the known character and the familiar qualities he had watched in their growth for twenty years.

The reader of these memoirs must not look for an adequate estimate of Lincoln's place in history, or for an authoritative judgment of his conduct of national affairs during the great civil war. He must expect, rather, to be helped to understand how Abraham Lincoln became the man he was, and what manner of man he was when the election of 1860 threw upon him a burden of responsibility hardly paralleled in history. The book is not such a one as a trained writer would have produced. It is more valuable because it is not. Facts are not selected with art to compose a predetermined picture; but we feel that an honest chronicler, who thoroughly knew his subject, has collected nearly everything authentic which can be known of Lincoln before his great elevation. We have much that is trivial, some things which are in bad taste, but we are made to feel, after all, that we are looking upon Lincoln's life as he actually lived it. It depends upon ourselves whether he is belittled by the revelation of things ordinarily kept behind a curtain. We have the opportunity to know him as the valet would know him, and if we are of the valet's make-up, the proverbial result may happen, and he will be no hero to us. The judicious reader will know how to put things in their proper perspective, and will form a truer picture of the man by the help of many little things which go to indicate character, though grotesque or even repulsive when taken by themselves.

Herndon's book will probably settle beyond controversy some things in Lincoln's mental structure and character. It becomes plain that his strength of intellect was a native sagacity, an inborn clearness of logical perception, that made fallacies transparent to him after a proper amount of reflection. He was neither quick nor ready in the common meaning of the words; but he was under a necessity of nature to form perfectly clear ideas of the subjects of his thoughts. He pondered them, therefore, till his notions of them became distinctly defined and they were put in harmony with the rest of his knowledge and his convictions. It does not appear that he was original in discovery or inventive in thought; but he was systematic, and made thoroughly his own what he learned or accepted.

While he was an industrious and laborious thinker, he was indolent as a reader. Indeed, this is only one phase of a physical indolence which was evidently a marked characteristic of the man. He assimilated his mental food slowly, and found his thinking powers so fully occupied and interested in studying out his own conclusions from few and simple data, that he did very little reading at any time in his life. In his profession as a lawyer as well as in general literature, he was a man of few books. It would not be far wrong to say he was a man of no books at all; for the practical affairs of life and his daily intercourse with men seem to have furnished him nearly all the material upon which his logic and his wit were employed. He was a Socratic philosopher, in his way, applying a rugged power of reasoning and a humorous faculty of illustration to all sorts of questions in debate as they arose along the street, in the tavern, anywhere and everywhere. Men and their affairs were his books, and he was incessantly studying and criticising them. He practised upon every audience his power of interesting and convincing. It mattered little whether it was before a knot of listeners in a country store, or the more formal gathering of plain people to listen to a stump speech. To carry his argument home by a logic which seemed like the inevitable conclusion from familiar truths in homely garb, and to tell his stories so that the "nub" should be irresistible, had been as constant a practical study with him as with Socrates himself, and the skill acquired was, in its way, no less.

Behind these intellectual traits was a moral nature which was essentially sound. A love for fair play, a dislike for meanness, an honesty so true that its opposite did not seem to tempt him, were characteristics which marked his whole practical life. His sympathy would be quick at the sight of suffering and his indignation at the sight of wrong. His sobriquet of "Honest Abe Lincoln" was fairly won by a simple, every-day adherence to sound principles of morals, and by constant reference of points in debate to these principles. When tempted into sophisms before a jury or elsewhere, the form of his argument would be an appeal from the technical or legal right, to the practical rectitude of plain men. By dint of constant study how to control the minds of unlettered people, he had acquired a habit of clear statement and simple but cogent reasoning which has been rarely matched. He had cured himself of a turgid rhetoric with which he began in imitation of the Orator Phillips vein, till he had formed a sharp antithetic style of great and simple force, the traces in it of his earlier method being noticeable as quaintnesses only, or but rarely as blemishes.

He was ambitious to be a politician from his early manhood. His wish to influence and to lead his neighbors naturally took that form, and it may fairly be said to have become the passion of his life. The triumphs of the political campaign, of the convention, of the legislative body, were to him the most desirable of earthly enjoyments. He accepted the tenets of his party, and became, to the full extent of his sphere of activity, its advocate and servant. His general honesty of character led him to play the game fairly, according to the accepted standard of fairness; but he does not seem to have carried any high ideal of morality into his politics. Prior to 1856 the old issues between Whigs and Democrats were in the main those of power and place. Lincoln was not averse to management and to "trading," and was familiar with the methods by which politicians in his day gained their ends. He sought the official places to which he was elected by open candidacy, and did not spare effort to secure favorable delegations in nominating conventions.

When the organization of the Republican party made resistance to the extension of slavery the central issue in politics, Lincoln was quick to see the strong moral grounds on which the debate would turn. He welcomed a contest in which he instinctively felt that his own qualities and methods might give him eminence, and in which his real love of justice and of right were in accord with the side which he espoused. He had not been an Abolitionist, nor even a Free-Soiler. He had done nothing to hasten the dissolution of the Whig party; but when it came, he showed that he was glad that political activity was now consistent with the advocacy of great measures in favor of human liberty and progress.

In accordance with his mental habit, he reduced the questions at issue to the simplest terms, and referred the solution of them to fundamental principles by logic so close and advocacy so persuasive, that his hearers seemed to themselves to be listening only to the voice of conscience. Yet his political prudence limited him to positions which the party had already taken, or which his sagacious judgment foresaw to be the next necessary step in party action. He did not compromise his party's success or his personal chances of election by outrunning the reform sentiment of his political associates. In his great debate with Douglas, when both were aspirants to the Senate of the United States, he proved himself an ideal party candidate by the power with which he urged the moral arguments in favor of his cause without adopting anything so advanced that his opponent could successfully make him out an extremist. He showed a marvellous shrewdness in formulating embarrassing dilemmas for Douglas, and an equal skill in turning those prepared for himself. His art of popular expression of doctrinal truths enabled him to reach the popular heart as a "plain, blunt man" who disclaimed being an "orator, as Brutus is." His highest powers, his greatest ambitions, and the country's good were all in happiest accord. His availability as a candidate was recognized by the whole country, and when the Chicago Convention assembled in 1860, the "hour and the man" had come. Yet Lincoln did not omit any means that seemed feasible to secure delegations and to have able managers on the floor of the Convention. Herndon's unsparing honesty has preserved the record of things which cannot be defended, and the recognized value to a candidate of organized enthusiasm in the galleries dates from that time.

While such things cannot be ignored in any historical estimate of Lincoln, they must not blind us to the sincerity of his belief in the principles which he advocated. They only show his human limitations. He was not the self-sacrificing reformer, but he was a public man with a large mixture of love for liberty and right. His sense of right was not always nice when the question was one of personal and party success, though he heartily loved and incomparably presented the right which his party had adopted as its platform. Thus representing the average sentiment of the peo-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ple, his faults, his oddities, and even his sins against good taste and refinement made him a figure at once distinguished and familiar, a leader who did not seem too far above the masses, a statesman and a jovial companion.

Such is the man presented truthfully in Herndon's pages. The narrative extends over the years of Lincoln's Presidency as well, but the narrator becomes only a compiler when Lincoln passed from his intimate personal association. The value of the book is found in its presentation of the Lincoln of the time before the war. It is another task to show how such a man met the responsibilities of the national Government in a great crisis; how his powers were developed and the good that was in him became great; how his weaknesses still existed, limiting his powers and interfering with the best coöperation with others; how political methods and a politician's habits still clung to him, and forbade him to reach the highest walks of statesmanship; but how, also, his sagacious comprehension of the advance of public opinion, and his faithful interpretation of it in action, made him, in that opinion, the embodiment of the cause he served and its martyr when he died for it.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Ladies' Gallery. By Justin McCarthy, M.P., and Mrs. Campbell-Praed. D. Appleton & Co.

Esther Denison. By Adeline Sergeant. Henry Holt & Co.

The Reproach of Annesley. By Maxwell Grey. D. Appleton & Co.

The Sphinx in Aubrey Parish. By N. H. Chamberlain. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

Vagabond Tales. By Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

Dragon's Teeth. From the Portuguese of Eca de Queiros. By Mary J. Serrano. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

An Alien from the Commonwealth. By Robert Timsol. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

It was said that Mr. McCarthy and Mrs. Campbell-Praed wrote their former joint story, 'The Right Honorable,' to prove that the literary feat of partnership in fiction-writing is possible. While we are not prepared to say, after reading their second venture, "Would to heaven it were impossible," we think they have yet to demonstrate their ability to produce a novel of the first class. Nor would we insinuate that the Member of Parliament invented the heroine, while his woman-collaborator wrote the scenes in the House of Commons. We will say, however, that there is disappointingly little about the Ladies' Gallery. Some of the Orient, some of the Occident, much of the "situation," might have been omitted, and a more valuable book made, by freer use of the material specially at Mr. McCarthy's command. The hero is assuredly born of woman, by reason of his exaggerated masculinity and of his impossible angelhood. Compounded of a Berserker and a Daniel Deronda (purged of dross), he does not even crush the serpent with his heel. He cherishes and reforms it and converts it into a useful draught amimal. Being impossibly good, he becomes impossibly foolish.

We wonder if the presentation of such artificial virtue may not be less harmless than is often supposed. Ideals, or what are beyond nature, are wholesome, and lend wings to the mind of a generous reader. Artificialities, or what are opposed to nature, may have a very different effect in giving distorted views as to the potency and permanency of the weak and the transient. Such a presentment as Richard Ransom may well foster in any young woman's mind the false hope of finding in man a being akin to Southey's Glendoveer. Binbian Jo, the sub-hero, and cause of all the trouble, is a purely factitious character, although his rôle of sinner turned saint is old enough to have evolved by sheer persistence a real class of such. Berenice, the wife of one of these men, the lover of the other—by the exercise of more than mortal heroism, shall we say? or of impartiality?—is represented as true to both positions. The situations of all three are as false and displeasing as anything meant to be upright and crystalline can be. The secondary personages are cheap and tiresome, though elaborately presented. Each has his trick meant to do duty for characterization. It is hardly right, perhaps, to find fault with philanthropy and socialism as constituents in a London novel, since they are as well established there as the taper fingers belonging to every well-constructed heroine; but their presence in this book has a labored effect, coming with so much else that is manufactured. It seems particularly striking that both Berenice's lovers should have made a specialty of reform—yet providential, since the disconsolate widow is thus enabled to continue the business, if not under the old firm name. It remains to say, and must in fairness be said, that the style of the book is clear and fluent; that, given the difficult situations, the leading characters talk exceedingly well and even naturally, and that the story is absorbing.

In 'Esther Denison,' except that the problem is bigamous instead of biandrous, the situations are equally embarrassing, and, we maintain, too strained for profitable contemplation. In other respects this latest novel of Adeline Sergeant's seems to us a book betokening unusual insight and observation. The characters are, to be sure, unequally drawn, some of them betraying perfunctoriness on the author's part, some, on the other hand, showing an unreasonable partiality. Upon the central figure, however, has been lavished a wealth of interest and ability, resulting in character-history rare in the modern novel. The incidents in Esther Denison's life are now trivial, now exaggerated; but the chronicle of the interior processes by which the timid, self-conscious child of the Methodist preacher becomes a woman capable of the grandest sacrifice, is an unusually faithful and intimate one, and, more than anything else in it, makes the book well worth reading. There are also other points of interest: the character of Mrs. La Touche, the worldling of the plot, is well done, and so are those of various of the Methodist Church dignitaries among whom Esther's youth is passed. Small wonder that the child who was always expecting miracles to happen, and who, when she was naughty, hid in the raspberry bushes, thinking of Adam and Eve, and expecting a voice to come from the sky, saying, "Esther, where art thou?" should pass through more than one spiritual reaction. With her mother, one feels reassured when she follows up an emotional outbreak with, "Oh mother, I wish the Circuit hadn't given us such a cross cat!"

The popularity of Maxwell Grey's former novel, 'The Silence of Dean Maitland,' will doubtless rouse the interest of summer reading circles in his second one, 'The Reproach of Annesley.' The faults of the earlier book will be found in this—its endlessness, and its intrusive landscape drawing; while the dignity of the moral struggle which constituted the power there, is hardly equalled here. On the other hand, the rustic element which was the one thing in 'The Silence of Dean Maitland' of which it was possible to wish there had been more, here makes one of the best features of the story. Maxwell Grey's peasants, while far below Hardy's (which are second only to Shakspere's), are perhaps next best to those, and are better than anything else in his novels except the landscape, and of that the quality is almost forgotten in the irritating quantity. The interest of the plot is to a certain degree absorbing while one is reading, yet it hardly stands the highest test of merit, that of being strong in retrospect. The attention is held and the curiosity excited, yet there is a want of inevitableness, of march in the incidents, which keeps the reader always on the outside, critically watching the straining of gnats and the swallowing of camels. The title has a goodly sound, and it is not till the book is closed that its awkwardness is appreciated.

'The Sphinx in Aubrey Parish' is a Priest and Pagan story, of some ideas, but more crudity, as is apt to be the case when a sermon goes masquerading as a novel. The agnosticism, waywardness, and unseemly flirtations of Edward Vaughn are offset, and as it were chaperoned, by the High Churchism, polemics, and lover's constancy of Frederic Ardenne. Frederic is of English birth, of military and ecclesiastic affiliations. He is a person of such importance that his father's epitaph is reproduced in capital letters for the reader, from the nave of Chester Cathedral. Frederic loves Helen de Vere—in manners, her namesake Clara's equal; in morals, her superior. When Frederic is with her, he calls her "my child," and she calls him "sir." Whenever they part, he says, "Pax tecum," and she replies, "Et cum spiritu tuo." Helen's uncle and guardian, the tyrant of the tale, has no repose of manner whatever; yet the author, seeming to fear that the reader may mistake the creation for a gentleman, is constantly implying the contrary with fine irony, sharpening, as Felix Holt's mother did, strong powers of argument upon the file of an imagined contradiction. Edward the Agnostic appears to have been a redoubtable lady-killer. Abraham Cowley's famous calendar is hardly longer than the list of Edward's conquests, some darkly hinted at, others enacted before us in thrilling tableaux; such as a rejected lady bowed down over a red-flecked granite sarcophagus, containing the ashes of her mummied Egyptian sister; another drowning herself for his sweet sake, while a third, rescued by him from an icy grave, marries him in triumph. In the parish where these stirring events occur, live some very slightly amusing country folk. The best parts of the book, however, and the most free from the author's turgidity and painful consciousness of his reader, are the theological discussions, into which, spite of their sacerdotalism, something like earnestness enters. The author dedicates the book "to my memories." For his own sake, let us hope that for portions of it he may have drawn also upon his imagination.

Prof. Boyesen's 'Vagabond Tales' consist in part of idyls written with no little charm of style, and no little observation of nature, men, and manners. The greater number of the tales, however, are accounts of young Norwegians who migrate to America in pursuit of fortune or of liberty, and who come to conspicuous grief. In passing we may say that there is a certain analogy between this and Prof. Boyesen's own fate when he cruises into the waters of what is technically known as American humor. As keen note-taker, satirist, and poet he is everywhere at home, and bestows his cheer with free hand; but his hu-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

mor is sectional and flourishes best on Norwegian soil. The realism he preaches so strenuously, we must agree with his friend Turgeneff in finding less becoming to him than his charming poetic vein. He has emphatically the story-teller's art. Whatever his theme, the recital flags not, and only stops to pick a flower, or sing a song, or shoot an arrow into some human foible. In a word, his stories are highly readable. His heroes are tender and true. His heroines are fresh and fair; they are pretty and dress well; they may or must visit the poor, milk cows, sail a boat, and catch salmon; but woe to them if they read 'Theophrastus Such' or discuss "nightmarish literary topics."

'Dragon's Teeth' is aptly described in the translator's preface as a "graphic picture of Lisbon life." There is a double fitness in this characterization, since the story of sin and sorrow which is here set down with coarse, unrelenting minuteness leaves one impressed rather with the description of life and manners in modern Lisbon than with the profoundness of the tragedy. One involuntarily compares the novel with 'Anna Karénina,' where the leading motive is the same, but where the book is closed with a supreme sense of the moral aspect of the story, in spite of there being, as in the Portuguese version, so much to divert the mind of the American reader into a survey of foreign ways of living and thinking. In 'Dragon's Teeth' the march of fate is no less terrible, nor is there anything more impressive in either book than the grim flippancy of the final chapter; but the dignity as well as the scope of the Russian novel are wanting.

The crudity of civilization in the Portuguese capital and the low tone of middle-class society make a dreary and repulsive picture, in truth. There is but one character in the book for whom anything like admiration can be felt—Sebastian, the friend of the betrayed husband. The rest are admirably drawn types, but types of ignorance, weakness, or depravity. A pompous counsellor is excellently presented; so, too, is the real heroine of the story, the serving woman Juliana, a malignant and revengeful fiend, described with an unsparing pen that might have been dipped in Balzac's inkstand. The empire of this woman over the mistress whose secret she holds, forms the subject of the cleverest and most original scenes in the book. That the whole is the work of an artist in realism is easily conceded. It is another question whether as disagreeable realism as this is the best friend of truth, and not rather of that pessimism which, according to Jules Lemaitre, is "perhaps a fact, but which is none the less in the wrong, and which besides becomes disagreeable and common."

In 'An Alien from the Commonwealth' we have the experiences of a journalist, idealist, and aristocrat, who, having been born on the eastern shore of Maryland, has fallen heir to a strong race feeling and a fine sensibility, which make it impossible for him to be comfortable in dining with persons richer than himself. His friends bolster and prod him from one occupation to another, through long chapters of wearisome exhorting and debate, till at last his estranged Maryland estates return to him, and he is enabled to hold up his head and invite all his wealthy friends to dinner. A chapter on salmon fishing, without which no romance now is complete, and some farcical sketches of Western prairie characters, are thrown in as incidental divertisement. That there is a vast amount of noble sentiment in the book, is not to be denied, but high thinking is not enough to make a successful romance. A few such trifles as style and form deserve attention. Long harangues about Marcus Aurelius, the duties of high-souled lawyers, the tariff, and the rules of rhetoric, make hard the way of the novel-reader.

LEAF'S ILIAD.

The Iliad. Edited, with English Notes and Introduction, by Walter Leaf, Litt.D., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Vol. I, Books I–XII. Vol. II, Books XIII–XXIV. Macmillan & Co.

Soon after the publication of the first volume of Mr. Leaf's edition of the 'Iliad,' we commended it in a Note to the attention of classical scholars. A brief account of the origin and general character of the work was given, but the more detailed consideration which it deserved was postponed until its completion by the publication of a second volume. Both volumes are now before us. In outward appearance they are in all respects companion volumes to Mr. Archer-Hind's beautiful edition of the 'Timæus' of Plato published by the same house.

Mr. Leaf is an Englishman, educated at one of the great English universities; his elaborate introductions and notes are in the English language, but his scholarship is thoroughly German. Nearly, perhaps quite, every proposition of Mr. Leaf from which we may dissent in the course of our review, is supported by some Greek specialist in Germany; but we may affirm that our views are also, in great part, supported by German scholars. His work is, so far as we know, the most elaborate and detailed attempt yet made by any English scholar to establish the theory, an especially German theory, that the 'Iliad,' in the form in which we have it, is the product of many authors.

The doctrine that the 'Iliad' is a single poem, composed by a single poet named Homer, comes down to us from the earliest period of authentic Greek history, and was never disputed until within one hundred years. It is true that Eustathius—quoted by Mr. Leaf in his introduction to the tenth book—writing in the twelfth century A. D., tells us: "The ancients say that this rhapsody was placed by Homer by itself, and was not inserted among the parts of the 'Iliad,' but was put into the poem by Peisistratus." Still, it was not disputed that Homer was its author. Extending back, perhaps, to a time before the first Olympiad, this tradition remained undisputed for more than twenty-five hundred years. In 1795 it was attacked by Wolf, and what has been the result? In all human probability, by 1895 the number of those who believe in it will be so small that first-class scholars will not consider it worth while to waste time in endeavoring to convince them of its untenableness.

Mr. Leaf, while showing us comparatively little that had not been pointed out by some one before, is yet a very independent scholar. He has gone through the 'Iliad,' microscope in hand, and, though most frequently looking where he has been told to look and seeing what he has been told he would see, yet he seems never to have stated the most minute and unimportant detail until he had verified it by his own observation. After making all due allowance for the assistance Mr. Leaf has been afforded by the labors of German scholars, his own work in verifying, comparing, analyzing, and combining the facts which they have gathered and the opinions they have expressed, is something wonderful. The opinions of the Greeks themselves in regard to the text of the 'Iliad,' so far as those opinions can now be ascertained, from Antimachus, the "diaskeuast," or, as we should now say, "editor," of an edition of the poem in the fifth century before the Christian era, down to the huge variorum commentary of Eustathius, are given with great minuteness. We think most classical scholars who have not made the textual criticism of the 'Iliad' a special study, will be surprised at the number of "various readings" which were in existence even as early as the second century before the Christian era.

Mr. Leaf's theory of the origin and growth of the 'Iliad' is as follows: The subject of the poem, in the form in which it has come down to us, is announced in the invocation to the Muse contained in the first seven lines. It is the "wrath of Achilles" and its direful consequences to the Greeks. Accordingly, Mr. Leaf starts with the assumption that there was originally an epic poem, which he calls a 'Menis Achilleos,' or simply 'The Menis.' This, "the first and greatest of epic poems," was "the work of 'Homer' himself." The 'Menis' contains "a little more than 3,400 lines." The whole 'Iliad,' as exhibited in Mr. Leaf's edition, contains 15,688 lines; so the 'Menis' is a little more than one-fifth of the whole. The remaining four-fifths is composed of subsequent expansions and interpolations. The expansions he subdivides into earlier and later; the interpolations, into longer and shorter. In the introduction to his second volume he gives a table in which the "whole Iliad" is arranged under these various heads. The table, however, leaves about 200 lines unaccounted for. These, we suppose, are the lines to which he refers in the remark, "Brief interpolations which do not affect the character of the passage as a whole are passed over in silence." In constructing his table Mr. Leaf has not succeeded in carrying out his own plan with strict accuracy. Thus, he says, "An asterisk indicates that a few of the lines contained in the passage to which it is affixed are an addition, and will therefore be found in a later column." But lines 1–404 of book xxii are assigned to the original 'Menis,' and they have no asterisk affixed, although lines 381–90 appear in the column which contains the latest interpolations. These small errors are of no consequence.

We have endeavored to analyze the table correctly, so far as it is possible, and to present Mr. Leaf's results as he intended. They are as follows: (1.) The original 'Menis,' containing 3,423 lines. It is made up of 26 passages taken from 12 different books, viz., i, ii, xi, xiii, and xv to xxii. The other 12 books are not represented at all in the original poem. The passages thus taken out and put together to form "the first and greatest of epic poems" vary in length from 2 lines to 610, but a majority of them are less than 100 lines in length. There is one passage of 2 lines, one of 3, and one of 4. We proceed with Mr. Leaf's classification. (2.) The earlier expansions. These contain 4,256 lines. Mr. Leaf says "these may be roughly divided into three strata," as he has done in his table, not "roughly," but exactly. His reasons for the subdivisions are too many, and often too vague and unsatisfactory, to permit of notice here, neither is it necessary for our purposes. In his first volume he expresses the opinion that many of these early expansions may be by the same author as the 'Menis,' viz., "Homer himself." But in his second volume he says: "I now feel much more doubt as to this." (3.) The later expansions. These again are subdivided in a manner which we need not stop to explain. They amount to 3,931 lines. In 2,559 of these lines Mr. Leaf thinks "the approximation in style to the 'Odyssey' is very marked," and "the question as to whether these are all by the same hand" is not pre-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

judged. (4.) The greater interpolations. These embrace 2,951 lines. (5.) The shorter interpolations, "by which the transitions from one piece to another of different age were managed." They sum up 906 lines. The total of all these divisions is 15,467 lines, leaving 221 lines "passed over in silence," with which the reader can do as he pleases. Their number is too small and, according to Mr. Leaf, they are of too little importance, to require further attention.

In order to criticise this theory of the origin and development of the 'Iliad' in a perfectly satisfactory manner, it would be necessary for the reviewer to oppose to it what he believed to be the true theory and to compare the two. To this course there are two insurmountable objections. In the first place, the subject is altogether too large to be treated in the space at our disposal, and in the second place we do not think the time has yet come for the formation of a detailed theory. There are too many unsolved problems in what may be called the natural history of epic poetry, and their solution depends upon researches of an entirely different character from those of Mr. Leaf. The "Homeric Question" will never be satisfactorily answered by Greek specialists. The study of the 'Iliad' itself, even though it were more microscopic than Mr. Leaf's, if that be possible, will not unravel the mystery of its origin. The materials gathered by the Greek specialists must be illumined by the light which may be thrown upon them by what we know or may hope to know of the origin and development of the 'Mahābhārata' of the Hindus, the 'Nibelungen Lied' of the Germans, the 'Chanson de Roland' of the French, the 'Kalevala' of the Finns, and a score of other epics. Above all, the light which may be derived from investigations into the nature and characteristics of folk-poetry in general, must be brought to bear upon the Greek epics. In fact, the Homeric Question is not so much a question of philology as of psychology—not the psychology of the individual, but a subsequent and higher branch of the science, the psychology of races and nations. We think that if Mr. Leaf will read the essay of Jacob Grimm, "Über das finnische Epos," in Hoefer's *Zeitschrift für die Wissenschaft der Sprache* (b. i, s. 13 *seq.*) and the following three articles in the *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie*, viz., Paul Heyse, "Ueber Italiänische Volkspoesie" (b. i, s. 181); Adolf Tobler, "Ueber das volksthümliche Epos der Franzosen" (b. iv, s. 139), and especially H. Steinthal, "Das Epos" (b. v, s. i), he will begin to suspect that the Homeric Question is not to be answered by ingenious experiments as to how a coherent and consistent short poem can be dug out of a long one by picking out a passage here and a passage there, piecing them together, and then dumping four-fifths of the poem into bins labelled "Expansions" and "Interpolations."

And here it is not out of place to remark that in the four-fifths of the 'Iliad' which, Mr. Leaf decides, formed no part of the original poem, are included much the larger part of those passages which the unanimous judgment of all the generations of more than twenty centuries has classed among the most beautiful, not only of this poem, but of all poetry. The scene at the tower near the Scæan gate, where Priam, his aged nobles, and Helen herself had assembled to witness the duel between her husband and her paramour; the parting of Hector and Andromache, where the relations and emotions of husband and wife, of father, mother, and child, even the humble offices of the nurse, are described with matchless beauty; the ransoming of the body of the slain Hector, where the stern Achilles relents though he does not repent, and the poet with a sublime pathos so marvellously blends in the aged Priam the sorrow of the father with the dignity of the king—all these scenes and many others, in which the poetic imagination soars in its loftiest flights, are among the later "accretions" of the original 'Menis.' We do not mention these facts as tending to disprove the manifold origin of the 'Iliad.' We are perfectly convinced that it is the work of many poets. What we do not believe is, that far back in prehistoric antiquity there arose a transcendent genius who created the "first and greatest of epic poems," and that in and around and upon this other poets fitted other poems, until the mass had swelled to five times its original size, and that this has been handed down through the ages for the torment of scholars and the delight of mankind.

One of the arguments which Mr. Leaf most frequently uses to justify the rejection of any portion of the 'Iliad' which he wishes to get rid of is that it *can* be struck out without destroying the connection of the narrative. There is one general objection to this method of procedure which would perhaps be sufficient to excuse us from entering into details. It can be applied with equal facility to poems which we know, as matter of history, are the product of a single author, for example, 'Paradise Lost.'

We will endeavor to illustrate by one or two examples what seem to us inconsistencies in Mr. Leaf's method. In the first book of the 'Iliad,' Achilles, prompted by the goddess Hera, calls an assembly of the Grecian warriors to consider what is to be done in regard to the pestilence which is ravaging the Grecian host. In the assembly a fierce quarrel arises between him and Agamemnon. Achilles, maddened by the threats of Agamemnon, is about to attack him, and is drawing his sword from the scabbard when Hera, who, from the heights of Olympus, is watching the assembly, sends the goddess Athena to restrain Achilles. Athena does this, and, after preventing the quarrel from coming to blows, she returns to her place on Olympus "among the other divinities." The assembly breaks up, and Agamemnon carries out his threats by sending two men to the tent (hut) of Achilles to carry off the maiden Briseis, who had been awarded to Achilles by the Greeks as his share of the plunder of a captured city. Achilles, following the directions of Athena, makes no resistance; but he goes along the beach alone and calls upon his mother, the goddess Thetis, who comes to him "from the depths of the sea." He begs her to go to Olympus and intercede with Zeus in his behalf. Thetis promises to do so, but tells him that Zeus and all the other divinities went "yesterday," that is, before any of the above events happened, to a feast among the Ethiopians. They will return on the twelfth day from their departure, and then she will go to Olympus to intercede with Zeus.

Here at one point the poet represents Hera, the wife, Athena, the daughter, and "the other divinities" as being on Olympus, and at another point as having gone from Olympus the day before. The contradiction is complete, and in consequence Lachmann rejected the last 264 lines (more than one-third) of the book as composed of additions by poets later than the author of the first 347 lines. But Mr. Leaf wants to save the greater part of the 264 lines for his 'Menis,' and how does he explain the inconsistency? He says:

"The consistency with which the epic poet is concerned is the consistency of the picture of the moment; the consistency of details in different scenes—so far as they do not touch the story itself as given by the legend on which he works—is of *minor importance*."

Now this is very sensible, but let us see how he treats another case where his 'Menis' theory leads in another direction. In the latter part of the fourth book of the 'Iliad' a great battle begins between the Greeks and the Trojans, and continues through the fifth, sixth, and the larger part of the seventh book. The narrative is interrupted at various points by the description of side scenes which, however, all have an intimate connection with the main action. In this battle, in which several of the divinities take part, Diomedes is the prominent figure. In the early part of the fifth book, Athena tells Diomedes that she has taken away from his sight the cloud which prevented him from distinguishing a divinity from a mortal. She warns him not to attack a divinity unless the goddess Aphrodite mixes in the fight; he may wound her with the spear. Afterwards, when the Greeks are hard pressed by the Trojans assisted by the god Ares, Athena gives Diomedes permission to attack Ares or any other of the gods, and with her assistance Diomedes wounds Ares, who flees to Olympus. The other divinities also leave the battle-field, and both Greeks snd Trojans are left to fight it out alone. In the sixth book the battle still continues, but it is now an entirely human battle. The divinities have gone to Olympus, and for the present they have no part or lot in the contest. Diomedes, after having slain two more Trojan warriors, encounters Glaucus, one of the Trojan allies. They are about to rush upon each other, when Diomedes pauses, and cries out, "Who of mortal men are you? I never saw you before in battle, and now you seem to be bravest of all." He doubts whether Glaucus is a man or a divinity descended from heaven. If a divinity, he will not fight with him; if a man, he is ready.

Mr. Leaf considers this "one of the most glaring inconsistencies in the Homeric poems." In the fifth book, "Diomedes has power given him to know god from man," while here the poet represents him as doubting whether Glaucus is divine or human. Mr. Leaf says: "Such an anomaly cannot be accounted for unless by the assumption that the two episodes of the wounding of the gods are a later addition." On the contrary, we do not think there is any anomaly or inconsistency at all. The poet does not say, and does not in any way imply, that Athena gave this power to Diomedes as a permanent endowment. In the fifth book, she and other divinities were engaged in the fight. She gave him the power of distinguishing between gods and men, and still further assisted him by taking the place of his charioteer and driving his horses in his encounter with Ares. But, after the wounding of Ares, all the divinities, she among them, left the field. There was no longer any occasion for the use of the supernatural gift, or any reason for supposing that Diomedes continued to possess it when there were no longer any divinities taking part in the battle.

The eighth book is one of those which Mr. Leaf rejects from his 'Menis.' One of his principal arguments to prove its later origin is "the fact that so large a number of lines is found in other passages as to give to considerable portions all the appearance of centos made up from the other books previously existing." And yet Mr. Leaf says in different places in his introduction to the book: "The plan of this book is simple." . . . "The narrative is clear and consistent with itself." . . . "It has undoubtedly great spirit and movement." The problem presented to the reader, and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

which we leave him to solve, is this: Which of two alternatives is the more probable, that this, that, and the other poet borrowed from a simple, clear, consistent, spirited poem, full of movement, or, that this brilliant poem was a piece of patch-work, made up in great part of lines taken from this, that, and the other poet? The truth is, these repetitions of themselves prove nothing. They are characteristic of the folk-poetry of all nations. In the absence of other evidence, no one can tell which is original and which is copy, and, when other evidence is attainable, they add nothing to its force.

We cannot help regarding Mr. Leaf's theory of the origin and development of the 'Iliad' as simply a survival of the old tradition to which English scholars have clung with such tenacity.

Transactions of the National Association for the Advancement of Art and Its Application to Industry. Liverpool Meeting, 1888. London: 22 Albemarle Street, Piccadilly. Pp. 407.

THIS is a handsome octavo volume, containing a series of papers read at the first annual congress of a newly formed British national society. The meeting was of course preliminary in character; the addresses delivered were naturally prefatory, and explanatory of the objects and aspirations of the leaders. The next meeting is announced for Edinburgh, and for December of this year. A brief note, headed "Objects of the Association," but not signed by any officer or committee, speaks of the necessity of retaining the commercial superiority of England. "In the face of hostile tariffs," it says, "and narrowing margins of profit all over the world, it is by excellence of make and superiority of artistic design that the products of manufacture of any country will henceforward attain prestige and command markets." The business of the Association is declared to be the attainment of such excellence in manufactured articles. The constantly increasing demand for pictures is commented on, and is said to have produced an over-supply of painters. The final assumption is that artists, such as sculptors and painters, should be assisted in finding work in the decoration of buildings, and that architects should be encouraged to find employment for painters and sculptors in connection with their building operations.

The society appears to be divided into six sections. Section A, painting, was represented at the Congress by an address from the President of the section, Mr. Alma-Tadema, and by a number of papers. Of these we can only mention Mr. John Brett's on "The Relation of the Pictorial to the Decorative Arts," in which the artist points out the necessity of putting decoration into the hands of highly trained artists, of lofty aims, as the only way of escape from the lifelessness of mechanism; and Mr. Francis Bate's paper on "The Tendencies of Modern Art," in which the Royal Academy is taken up and sharply catechised as to the use it has made of its great opportunities. Section B has to do with sculpture, and this section furnishes to the first Congress an address by the President of the section, Mr. Alfred Gilbert, and five papers, dealing respectively with architectural carving; with advanced sculpture, as the decoration of buildings and public places; with design in art metal work; with the modern revival of interest in sculpture; and with the influence which sculpture has had and may have again upon paintings. The slight and perfunctory character of these papers is oddly characteristic of sculptureless modern England. The other sections are: C, Architecture, with Prof. Aitchison for President; D, Applied Art, with Mr. Walter Crane for President; E, Art History and Museums, under the Presidency of Mr. Sidney Colvin, who, however, was absent, and was represented by the Honorary Secretary, Mr. Lionel Cust; and finally, Section F, National and Municipal Encouragement of Art.

Besides the meetings of the several sections there were "combined meetings" of two or three sections, at which papers on the joint action or the mutual interdependence of these arts were considered. This seems an excellent plan, which may result in much good in future years. Some outside appeals to the public were carried on in connection with this first congress, and the whole was introduced by an elaborate "Presidential Address" by the President of the whole Association, Sir Frederick Leighton, and a sermon by Archdeacon Farrar.

We have gone into these details to show how elaborate is the structure and how extensive the reach of this new organization. The actual result of the first year's congress, so far as the book represents it, is slight. But few of the papers are very original, very forcible, or very interesting. That they do not offer a very coherent scheme for future work is not to be wondered at; that will be the business of future congresses. But there is one notable thing about these essays, the evidence contained in them that some thinkers at least have discovered the special need of modern times, namely, a frank abandonment of decoration to men who are artists in the highest sense of that term, and the cessation of all attempts to rival barbaric and therefore unconscious designers. The complete failure of every attempt among modern European peoples to decorate as savages and semi-savages and nomad tribes and ignorant, low-caste Hindus decorate, ought to have demonstrated this truth; and the failure of the sincere and energetic attempt to revive mediæval methods in architecture ought to have helped in the demonstration. Now, at last, after years of vain effort, it begins to be seen that the lost art of making designs for ornament can be restored only by artists of the highest intellectual force, both original and acquired.

Labour and Life of the People. Volume I. East London. Edited by Charles Booth. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

THE merits of this book are so great that it is no easy task to set them forth in moderate terms. In the first place, it is a thoroughly scientific piece of statistical investigation. The facts are collected and verified with such care, and in such numbers, as to furnish a sufficient basis for induction, and the deductions are in the main indisputable. Then the work is characterized throughout by a sobriety of judgment and a conscientiousness of statement that dispose the reader to accept the opinions of the authors in the few instances where they offer suggestions of their own. The descriptive portions are really interesting social studies, and are evidently the work of observers well acquainted with their subjects. And, finally, the result of the whole investigation is to show the groundlessness of most social alarms, the falsity of many of the representations of sentimentalists, and the folly of the schemes of professional agitators. In short, we have here a solid mass of facts and conclusions which must be reckoned with by every one who hereafter threatens the dissolution or proposes the reconstruction of the present social order, if he would have serious audience.

But, apart from being a stumbling-block in the way of weak-minded benevolence, the work has the very positive merit of pointing out clearly to the charitable the lines upon which they must labor, and of furnishing them good reasons for hoping that their labor may be made productive. We have no doubt that many good people are suffering from a permanent depression of spirits on account of what they suppose to be the gloom over the future of society. They are not only saddened by the thought of the deepening misery of vast numbers of their fellow-creatures, but they believe that—

"Nearer comes a hungry people, as a lion, creeping nigher,
Glares at one that nods and winks before a slowly dying fire."

Not many persons are capable of the philosophy of Hezekiah and Louis XV. Certainly not a few wise men are troubled for what the future may have in store for their children, and we might almost say that educated women as a class cannot take their pleasures with a clear conscience, from a vague sense of responsibility for the unfairness with which pleasures are apportioned. As a cure for all such feeling, so far as it is morbid, this book may be heartily recommended. We know from it that matters are not growing worse, but better; we learn that they are not so bad as they were said to be; and we see that it is within human power to improve them very greatly.

So far as the danger of anarchy is concerned, Mr. Booth, after reviewing the evidence, declares: "The hordes of barbarians of whom we have heard, who, issuing from their slums, will one day overwhelm modern civilization, do not exist. There are barbarians, but they are a handful, a small and decreasing percentage; a disgrace but not a danger." As to the distribution of happiness in general, we think the testimony of those who have had experience among the poor will coincide with Mr. Booth's. Among his humble friends he found not uncommonly "wholesome, pleasant family life, very simple food, very regular habits, healthy bodies and healthy minds, affectionate relations of husbands and wives, mothers and sons, of elders with children, of friend with friend." As what he has to say concerning children particularly conveys a double lesson, we quote his opinion at some length:

"The children in class E, and still more in class D, have when young less chance of surviving than those of the rich; but I certainly think their lives are happier, free from the paraphernalia of servants, nurses, and governesses, always provided they have decent parents. They are more likely to suffer from spoiling than from harshness, for they are made much of, being commonly the pride of their mother, who will sacrifice much to see them prettily dressed, and the delight of their father's heart. This makes the home and the happiness of the parents; but it is not this, it is the constant occupation, which makes the children's lives so happy. They have their regular school hours, and when at home, as soon as they are old enough, there is 'mother' to help, and they have numbers of little friends. In class E they have for playground the back yard, in class D the even greater delights of the street. With really bad parents the story would be different, but men and women may be very bad, and yet love their children and make them happy. . . . I perhaps build too much on my slight experience, but I see nothing improbable in the general view that the simple, natural lives of working-class people tend to their own and their children's happiness more than the artificial, complicated existence of the rich."

The method of classification adopted is as follows: East London contains about 900,000 inhabitants, distributed according to their in-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

comes roughly into eight grades: Class A, containing the lowest order of semi-criminals, loafers, and occasional workers; B, the "very poor," dependent upon casual earnings; C and D, the "poor," with intermittent and small regular earnings; E, those above the line of poverty, with regular standard earnings; F, G, and H, higher-class labor and lower and upper middle class. The divisions are, of course, to some extent arbitrary, but when a family has a sufficiently regular though bare income, such as 18s. to 21s. per week for a moderate number of members, it is called "poor," and "very poor" if it falls much below this standard. The census was taken in a very ingenious and thorough manner, but the details are too complicated for explanation here, nor can we even glance at the very skilful characterizations of the different classes. Their numbers are, for A, about 11,000, or one-fortieth of the population; B, 11.22 per cent.; C, 8.33; D, 14.46; E, 42.28; F, 13.60; G, 3.86; H, 5.02.

We are limited to a bare presentation of figures, but they are accompanied in the report with an enormous amount of information concerning East London as a whole, and its several parishes, the varieties of occupation, modes of life, details of expenditure, and habits and customs of the inhabitants. There are chapters upon the clubs and burial societies of the workingmen, the relations of the classes, "sweating," the Jewish community, the influx of population, and there is a series of chapters upon the different trades. Not the least valuable part of the book consists of the comments that are made incidentally by these experienced workers among the poor upon the causes of poverty, the change of feeling in regard to indiscriminate alms-giving, the effect of machinery in making employment constant, the migratory habits of the poor, the cessation of outdoor relief, and similar matters. We are embarrassed by the riches of information which is poured out before us, and can only urge all those who are interested in any form of charity to possess themselves of this book.

As to the "limited socialism" which Mr. Booth suggests as a possible remedy for the worst of the evils which he describes, it is free from the objectionable features of Socialism, and would be opposed, we think, only by professed Socialists. It is nothing more than the extension of the poor-law, or rather its application, upon scientific principles, to the miserable class of the "very poor." Of these it is generally true that they are out of work because they will not work and cannot work. They are "a selection of the unfit." The members of this class are constantly ground out of existence, but their place is taken by those who drop from other classes. If they could be brought under State regulation, they might be improved, and their children might be better started in life. Those who could not maintain the standard of living fixed by authority might be planted in "industrial groups," fed, taught, and worked by Government officers, and sent to the workhouse if they proved incorrigible.

As Mr. Booth declares that he rejects "any form of compulsion save the gradual pressure of a rising standard of life," it is not very clear how the subjects of this treatment are to be induced to undergo it; but as he is evidently a practical man, we suppose that he sees how the difficulty may be surmounted. His views are certainly moderate enough: "To open a little the portals of the poor-law or its administration, making within its courts a working guild under suitable discipline; to check charitable gifts, except to those who from age or infirmity are unfit for any work; to insist upon sanitation and to suppress overcrowding; to await and watch the results, ready to push forward as occasion served—this is all that could be done."

We have given a very inadequate account of a remarkable book. Its appearance will, we are confident, mark an era in the conception and the treatment of the evil of poverty in London, and it should cause a general concentration of charitable effort upon the lines that it indicates. The city of New York offers a field for similar investigation, less varied in interest, perhaps, but equally important; and it may be hoped that the work will be presently undertaken. The harvest is ripe, the laborers are plentiful, and all that is required is guidance of the intelligent character displayed by the editor of this volume.

The Military Annals of Lancaster, Mass., 1740-1865. By Henry S. Nourse, A.M. Lancaster. 1889.

AFTER five years' labor, Mr. Nourse has produced a companion volume to his 'Early Records of Lancaster,' and again demonstrated his eminent fitness to write a town history. As his aim was, in part, to procure and preserve lists of soldiers in the several wars under review, the 'Annals' are not adapted for continuous reading, like the 'Records.' Nevertheless, they are interspersed with passages and chapters which light up the past in a very entertaining manner. Such are the special "statistical and social annals" of the Revolutionary period, the account of the town's Loyalists, and the pleasant picture of Lancaster's golden age following the disastrous and unpopular war of 1812. In an appendix, too, the author returns to John Prescott, founder of the settlement, and head of a famous family. Of necessity, Mr. Nourse gives a general outline of the colonial wars in which New England was implicated, and colors his statistics with military reports and letters which breathe the spirit of the time. Such, for example, is Capt. Abijah Willard's narration of the way in which he executed sealed orders requiring him, in the Acadian expedition, "to burn all the houses that I found on the Road to the Bay of Verts." "This afternoon," he says, "I ordered the whole to be Drawed up in a Bodey and bid the french men march of, and sott fire to their Buildings and Left the women and children to Tack Care of themselues with grate Lamentation which I must Confess itt seemed to be sumthing shoking."

In the war of independence "almost every male citizen [of Lancaster] must have served at some period, either personally or by substitute"; and "fully one-fourth of the whole male population above the age of sixteen were kept constantly in the army during the most trying years of the conflict." Nevertheless, the town had its Loyalists in the most respectable classes, including the Capt. Willard who so reluctantly depopulated Acadia. He was riding on horseback to visit his farm in Beverly on the fateful morning of April 19, 1775, when "he was turned from his course by the swarming out of minute-men at the summons of the couriers bringing the alarm from Lexington, and we find him next with the British in Boston. He never saw Lancaster again." From the heights of Boston, two months later, he stood by Gen. Gage as they watched the engagement at Bunker Hill, and recognized with the glass his brother-in-law, Col. William Prescott, in command of the rebels. He ultimately sought refuge in Nova Scotia, and there died in exile.

In 1765 there were more male than female children in the fighting town of Lancaster, though the proportion of sexes was reversed with the adult population. Families then averaged more than six individuals; in 1885, but four and a half—from which we must not infer too much as to longevity or rate of increase. Farming has of course fallen off; the town no longer has a large surplus of food for sale. In the distress caused by the depreciation of paper money during the Revolution, the town made vain efforts to fix prices of commodities, down to "Flip made of New England rum, Half a pint of rum in a mugg, 9d. a mugg," and of services, down to "Doctor's fees. Vomitt, 1s," etc. On June 28, 1779, the town "Voted that the price of the comodityes of the farmer and any other article do Not Rise any hier than at this time." Canute's tide was not less obedient. The town was somewhat remarkable for skilful craftsmen, and a Quaker cordwainer named Holder made ladies' shoes that were in great demand. Customers who went abroad still sent him their orders, and their French acquaintances also became his patrons, in preference to the handiwork of Paris. It is sad to think that this benighted shoemaker never knew what it was to need protection.

The genealogical value of this volume, as of its predecessor, is very considerable, and few can estimate the pains which have gone to the making of it. Mr. Nourse is humorous as an antiquarian should be, and his work throughout gives evidence of a cultivated and humane spirit. The book is faultlessly printed, and is adorned with several portraits.

The Beginnings of New England; or, The Puritan Theocracy in its Relation to Civil and Religious Liberty. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889. 16mo, pp. 296.

A BORROWED and adapted title leads the observant reader to anticipate little originality in the volume thus heralded. In Mr. Fiske's case we have the further caution that this was a course of lectures, delivered at various places, and now put in print. Mr. Fiske is by no means devoid of learning—in fact, he has studied his subject carefully; but he has sought a popular method of stating results. As opposed to the reverent researches of Palfrey, Ellis, and Dexter, he poses as the "candid friend" of our Puritan ancestor, and with the proverbial result. He is not as thorough as Peter Oliver, or even Brooks Adams, but his aim is the same—to present the defects of our ancestors as a correction to past excessive praise.

The first chapter is wholly unconnected with New England by any reasonable link, except in the sense that all the past has affected the present. The remaining chapters contain a sketch of New England history, showing all the evidences of a practised pen, and very easy and pleasant reading it is. Mr. Fiske starts off with the proposition that "among the significant events which prophesied the final triumph of the English over the Roman idea, perhaps the most significant—the one which marks most incisively the dawning of a new era—was the migration of English Puritans across the Atlantic to repeat in a new environment and on a far grander scale the work which their forefathers had wrought in Britain." This reappears in various forms at various points, but is never wrought out, and is curiously suggestive of the methods of the lecturer. That our nation to-day is different from what it was a century ago, is a truism. But as every man has a right to give his own explanation of the chief cause, and as the influential causes are so

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

numerous, we must deny that Mr. Fiske can settle the question authoritatively. We may say that the Louisiana purchase was the real turning-point; another man may prefer to attribute everything to steam and electricity. Certainly most people will give little force to the fact that the Massachusetts Great and General Court was a more truly representative body than the British Parliament, or consider it the main cause of the present condition of the world.

Mr. Fiske, for a specialist, has been very unfortunate in his few personal touches. Genealogy is evidently a mystery to him. His few attempts to give precision to his pictures are unluckily all wrong. On p. 103 he says of Gov. Thomas Dudley, that "he represented the elder branch of that Norman family, to the younger branch of which belonged the unfortunate husband of Lady Jane Grey and the unscrupulous husband of Amy Robsart." On p. 258 he calls Gov. Joseph Dudley a kinsman of the Earl of Leicester. The fact is that we know the name of the father of Thomas Dudley, but nothing else of his pedigree; and in genealogy an unproved claim is absolutely worthless. There were many Dudleys in England not allied to the ennobled line. On p. 193, Mr. Fiske says "it is interesting to observe that the Rovalist commander who surrendered to him was Sir Henry Washington, own cousin to the grandfather of George Washington." It is very much more "interesting to observe" that Mr. Fiske is ignorant of Col. Chester's complete refutation of that particular Washington pedigree. On p. 114 he speaks of the "pugnacious Welshman, Roger Williams." For this ascription of nationality he can plead tradition, and the fact that he wrote before the publication of the latest researches of Mr. Waters, which, as our readers already know, render it almost certain that Williams was a London boy.

Its defects notwithstanding, we trust Mr. Fiske's book will have a wide circulation. It is attractive, its facts mainly correct, and its intense Americanism will do no harm as a foundation for a young student, or even as the entire supply for a casual reader.

Gleanings from Japan. By W. G. Dickson. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons.

Dr. Dickson's book possesses unusual interest, because it is the record of a well-equipped traveller who has seen both old and new Japan. The opportunity is not often given to behold twice in its differing phases a people that has as completely changed its outward forms of life as the snake that has cast its skin, or the deer that has shed its horns. It is very evident, despite his many cheery pages, that our author still looks upon the process as but half complete, and that to him the new skin is yet very thin, and the new horns still "in the velvet." He does not seem able to conceal either his admiration for the ancient forms of political and social life, or his scepticism as to the results of the growth whose final outcome is not yet apparent.

In 1862, after several years of study of life in China, Dr. Dickson came to Japan for a stay of some months. Not content with the usual observations of foreigners, he began a systematic study of the Government handbooks and such political literature as was then available. The fruits of his study were seen in his sketch of 'Japan,' which in size and mechanical outfit is a twin volume to the present handsome book. Only one who has used the work on the soil of Japan can fully appreciate its many merits, despite the uncouth spelling of native names, which so mars the pages as to make it repulsive to many would-be readers. It is much to be regretted that Dr. Dickson should, in the volume now before us, perpetuate such a barbarous transliteration. To do this when dictionaries, grammars, and a whole library of transactions of learned societies and writings of popular authors conform to a standard natural system, is to invite neglect and dust for a highly meritorious work to which there are only too few companions.

Though Dr. Dickson helped, as he tells us, to "surreptitiously huddle out of the country" the four pioneers of the army of young students who have since invaded America and Europe, yet he does not seem to comprehend clearly the true causes of the recent revolutions, or rather reformations. He left the country long before the epochal year of 1868, and, despite his study of the Government blue-books, the Jesuit fathers and foreign authors, and even with the help of Japanese friends who could speak imperfect English, his view of the recent political history of Japan is rather that of the hong and club at Yokohama, than of the student who has lived long inside the country among natives. The four young gentlemen whom he rowed off to the English steamer, and for whose sake he hoodwinked the official spies, are now the highest officers of the Government, and, as the impartial student, we think, will declare, statesmen of no mean order. Yet, notwithstanding what the author has himself seen within a quarter of a century, we find him in one of several passages of similar import saying, on page 86, after a tribute to the constructive genius of Iyéyasu, "It requires a man to build a house, but rats may bring a house down, and the spirit of the age is with the rats." Now, without going into a controversy with the author as to his opinions thus frequently asserted, are we unfair in suggesting that this thought is rather that of his "fountain of information," Otomo Sadaijiro, a most loving admirer of old feudal Japan, than of an impartial student who knows the history of ancient as well as of modern Japan?

The unusual merit of Dr. Dickson's volume makes his opinions and judgments worth noticing. Although he travelled much, in his journeys made in 1883-'84, and saw many things of interest in unbeaten tracks, yet it is not as a transcript of a tourist's ephemeral jottings that the book will be read. It belongs rather to the few solid and enduring works of value on Japan that deserve a permanent place in the library. It is a rich sheaf of the best grain not found in other men's bundles. Familiar with the local history and the best native guide-books, having withal the assistance of a scholarly Japanese gentleman, and himself a man of literary and scientific culture, Dr. Dickson's second volume, like his first, will outweigh in permanent worth about a dozen of the average books made by people who have peeped at the country. The volume contains an index which ends on the four hundredth page, and is illustrated with outline drawings from photographs.

The Story of Phœnicia. By George Rawlinson, M.A. [The Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A strip of land, 200 miles long and with an average width of less than thirty miles, was the advance guard of Asia for the civilization of Europe—such is, in brief, the "story" of Phœnicia. Shut off by mountain ranges from hostile armies, situated on the sea, with inexhaustible supplies of timber fit for ships and oars near by, supplied by the sea with the materials for the richest dye ever known, it would have been strange indeed had this nation not become the chief manufacturing, and more especially trading, community of the ancient world. The Phœnicians were a Semitic tribe who migrated to a strip of the Syrian seaboard. Judged by their literary remains, they would be esteemed the least of their family, yet their contributions to civilization can hardly be overestimated. They built the ships of Egypt, Palestine, Persia, and Greece in turn. As Gen. Cesnola's discoveries showed, they indelibly left their impress upon Cyprus. They sent a colony to England, and in all probability worked the tin mines of Cornwall. They built the temple of Solomon and circumnavigated Africa. It was from them that Carthage sprang, at once the enemy and instructor of Rome. They were the one people of antiquity with whom foreign intercourse and war were not synonyms. They were the discoverers of glass, their metal-workers were the best of the time, their engravings on ivory have been found in every capital of western Asia. Their alphabetic writing is the parent of every alphabetic system now in use, our own included.

Though a small country, or rather aggregation of cities (for they never formed a real kingdom, but only a confederacy of independent cities, which, as a rule, but not always, acted together in case of an emergency), they retained their independence longer than any of the smaller western Asiatic countries. Phœnicia became tributary to Assyria in the ninth century B. C., recovered her independence two hundred years later, submitted after a long siege to Nebuchadnezzar, became part of the Persian Empire when Cyrus conquered Babylonia, assisted Xerxes in his disastrous war with Greece, baffled for a time but finally succumbed to Alexander, became a Roman province—and died.

Of this fascinating story Canon Rawlinson has made the most possible. Unfortunately, Phœnician remains are scanty. A few sepulchral inscriptions, and some fragmentary remains in Greek literature, with scattered notices in the Bible, furnish the chief materials for the history of Phœnicia. There is plenty of room for play of the imagination, but in the main our author's pictures are sober. The great find at Sidon in 1887 lends the hope that Phœnicia, like Assyria and Egypt, may yet yield her secrets to us.

One can hardly avoid the suspicion that the book was written up to an established size, since it might well have been shorter. The necessity for the use of Hebrew types in a popular book of this sort is not apparent, but, the determination having been reached, the proof-reading should have been done with a little more care (*e. g.*, pp. 32 and 36); and the query as to the identity of *Baal* and *Bel* should have been omitted. Any one familiar with the discoveries in Semitic phonetics during the last ten or fifteen years could have given Canon Rawlinson a satisfactory explanation of the apparent difference in the number of "root letters," as he calls them.

Le Livre du Centenaire du Journal des Débats, 1789-1889. Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.

Founded within a few months of each other, the *Times* of London and the *Journal des Débats* of Paris have recently celebrated each its centenary; and it is, perhaps, characteristic of the finer literary and artistic taste of the French journal that it chose to commemorate the hundredth anniversary of its first number by the production of one of the most sumptuous volumes issued of late years from the French

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

press. A broad and noble page, abundant facsimiles, frequent etched portraits, with many other illustrations, manifest a desire to produce a work worthy of the occasion. It is hardly disputable that the *Times* is the typical English newspaper, the journal which most of its rivals seek to copy and to equal. In like manner, although without the same indisputable pre-eminence, the *Journal des Débats* is a typical French paper. A brief comparison of the *Times* with the *Débats* brings out the essential difference between the newspapers of London and of Paris, revealing distinctly that the prime object of the former is to get the news, while the aim of the latter is to have the best opinions. It is the difference between mere information and skilled criticism—criticism of politics, of law, of economy, of science, of literature, and of art. Most of the writers for the *Times*, in so far as they are known, have been Englishmen of education, capable of expressing an every-day judgment in a dignified manner; it is, perhaps, too much to say that they were mostly mediocrities, but, of a certainty, they were commonplace. Great men have often written *to* the *Times*, but they have very rarely written *for* it. The *Débats*, on the other hand, has a list of constant contributors which includes very many of the very foremost names in the history of French literature and politics during the past hundred years. A note in this 'Livre du Centenaire' tells us that of the 700 known contributors to the *Débats* during its first century, 48 have been members of the French Academy, and 132 (or nearly a fifth) have been members of one class or another of the Institute. Among the best known writers for the *Débats* during its hundred years of life are Chateaubriand, Benjamin Constant, Saint-Marc Girardin, Berlioz, Jules Janin, Prévost-Paradol, Laboulaye, Michel Chevalier, Littré, Renan, Taine, John Lemoinne, Paul Bourget, J. J. Weiss, and Jules Lemaitre. Among those who contributed to this 'Livre du Centenaire,' as a testimony of their regard for the *Débats*, are the Duc d'Aumale, Alexandre Dumas *fils*, E. Legouvé, Victor Cherbuliez, Ludovic Halévy, and Paul Leroy-Beaulieu.

Although the *Débats* is no longer emphatically the first of French newspapers, its position is still most honorable; and as we look down the pages of the 'Livre du Centenaire,' we can see how strong its influence has been on its fellows and on the development of the Parisian press generally. The serial story, for example, which now occupies the ground-floor of every French daily, was early received by the *Débats*, which published Soulié's 'Mémoires du Diable,' Sue's 'Mystères de Paris,' and Dumas's 'Comte de Monte-Cristo.' It was the *Débats* which first reported in full the proceedings of the Academy and of the other learned bodies, and which first began to pay regular attention to science. After the war of 1870 the *Débats* was the paper which led the way in the attention it paid to foreign literatures. M. de Vogüé, for example, keeps it informed about Russian literature, and in the list of contributors we find the names of Mr. T. B. Aldrich and of Mr. Marion Crawford, because French translations of novels of theirs have appeared in the *Débats* as serials. In this attention to science and to foreign literatures the *Temps* has vied with the *Débats*, and in the value of its correspondence, artistic criticism, and editorial writing generally, the *Temps* now seems to us to surpass the *Débats*. Indeed, all things considered, we hold the *Temps* to be distinctly the best of Parisian newspapers, and to represent what is best in the French character. It is the *Figaro* which has won a wider popularity by not representing what is best in the French character, by pandering to the taste for the sensational in ways not unlike those of the London *Telegraph* and the New York *World*.

Readers of Mr. Brownell's acute essays on 'French Traits,' desiring to see ample manifestations of the intelligence which the American critic finds at the bottom of French character, cannot do better than to read, for example, M. Renan's essay on M. de Sacy's management of the *Débats* during the Second Empire, and M. Jules Simon's account of the *Débats* during the Restoration; or, perhaps better yet, M. Halévy's description of the old house in which the *Débats* has found shelter for a century, or M. Jules Lemaitre's analysis of his chief predecessors as the dramatic critic of the paper, Geoffroy, Janin, Weiss. It is in the criticism of the arts, literary, pictorial, and dramatic, that we must admit the enormous superiority of the *Journal des Débats* over the London *Times*. Upon all artistic subjects the judgments of the *Times* are likely to be dull and dignified, commonplace and conventional, empty at bottom, but eminently respectable in form. An American visitor in London, after reading a rather platitudinous article on the Royal Academy in the London *Times*, ventured to suggest to an American artist who had lived long in France, but who exhibited frequently in England, that the art critic of the *Times* didn't apparently know much about art. "Know anything about art?" the artist returned cynically; "why, he knows less than my coachman—and I don't keep one!" This is a hard saying, and it probably goes beyond strict justice; but no one could ever say a thing of this sort about a specialist who wrote for the *Débats*.

Father Damien; A Journey from Cashmere to his Home in Hawaii. By Edward Clifford. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

THIS little book hardly adds to our knowledge of Father Damien. Most people who read the newspapers know already that the name of the heroic priest and servant of God and man was Joseph Damien de Veuster; that he was a Belgian by birth, who went young into missionary work in the Pacific, and from the year 1873 to his death last spring devoted himself to the care of the leper settlement at Molokai. Most people, too, have enough general acquaintance with his life of labor and sacrifice to admire and love him. If they desire to add to their information some slight notion of how the good father looked, and, besides, some scanty knowledge of the disease of which he was the victim, they may read Mr. Clifford's little volume. But the only really valuable thing that they will find, we think, is the statement that, saint and lover of men as F. Damien was, he did not escape calumny. "Scorpio still follows Libra in the zodiac," even in the South Seas.

But, if we see not much of F. Damien in these pages, we see a good deal of Mr. Clifford, who is not always happy in his autobiographic essays. There is a portrait at the beginning of the volume. It represents a young, resolute face with an expression on it of pity mixed with pain.

Our Journey to the Hebrides. By Joseph Pennell and Elizabeth Robins Pennell. Harper & Bros. 1889.

IT appears that Mr. and Mrs. Pennell did not wish to take a tramp in Scotland, but editorial necessities overcame their distaste; they started thus with clouded countenances, and went upon their way, only to be more and more sure that Scottish travelling was not to their liking. The prettily bound volume into which their magazine articles have been bound is consequently rather dreary reading. It is one long complaint, devoted to the woes of the weather, of walking with knapsacks, and of the varied unpleasantness possible to the Hebrides and other places Scottish. Only the woes of the crofters exceeded their own, and afford a black background for their misfortunes by the roadside. It is not strange that papers written in so inhospitable and fault-finding a vein should have met with not very tolerant criticism from lovers of the Highlands and the West Coast. It was well to tell the story of the crofters and to awaken sympathy for them; but if a traveller has found only weariness, wet, and hunger on his journey, and has come back in so discontented a frame of mind as to find Scott's novels stupid reading after just visiting their scenes, he may be sure that he has missed seeing what the country had to show, and he ought not to expect the public to be interested in mere discomforts.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bixby, J. T. Religion and Science as Allies. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. 30 cents.
Edgerton, J. A. Poems. Marietta, O.: E. R. Alderman & Sons.
Great Words from Great Americans. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Kent, Prof. C. W. Elene: An Old English Poem. Boston: Ginn & Co. 65 cents.
Le Clerc, M. E. Mistress Beatrice Cope. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Phyfe, W. H. P. Seven Thousand Words Often Mispronounced. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Poor's Manual of Railroads, for 1889. H. V. & H. W. Poor.
Richards, J. Manual of Machine Construction for Engineers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $5.
Richardson, L. Lord Dunmersey. John Delay. 50 cents.
Savage, T. Manual of Industrial and Commercial Intercourse between the United States and Spanish America. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co.; New York: N. Ponce de Leon.
Snyder, W. L. Laws [of N. Y.] Authorizing the Incorporation of Clubs, Societies, and Associations. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 50 cents.
Spofford, A. R. American Almanac for 1889. Am. News Co.
Steinitz, W. The Modern Chess Instructor. Part I. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XIX. *Finch—Forman*. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Stoddard, Elizabeth. The Morgesons. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Strong, Prof. A. H. Systematic Theology. 2d ed. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $5.

"Every child in America should have them."—*New England Journal of Education.*

"The 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia' should be in every juvenile library."—*From a Report of the Connecticut Board of Education.*

YOUNG FOLKS' CYCLOPÆDIA of { *Common Things...$2.50.* / *Persons and Places.$2.50*

HENRY HOLT & CO., Publishers, New York.

BACK NUMBERS, VOLS. AND SETS of the *Nation* bought, sold, and exchanged.
A. S. CLARK, 34 Park Row, New York City.

Johns Hopkins University,
BALTIMORE.

Announcements for the next academic year are now ready and will be sent on application.

Diamond Hams.
S. DAVIS, JR., Cincinnati.

The Centennial Commission in 1876 reported an award to these Hams. "First the excellent flavor of the meat." "Second, its good keeping quality, demonstrated by the perfect freshness of hams cured in 1873." Sold by Leading Grocers.

NEW CATALOGUE of Books in good condition now ready. Books purchased.
E. W. JOHNSON, 1336 Broadway.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED